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ABSTRACT

This literature/research review was conducted to provide information to guide future work on the Western Canadian Protocol Social Studies K-12 Project and reflects the researchers' perspectives on topics and subjects reviewed. The review represents a broad synthesis of relevant research and literature in the key areas identified, not an exhaustive and complete search in any specific area. The contents of the review were developed through an examination of international and national social studies journals, textbooks, research handbooks, publications, and conference programs to determine topics that have been of interest to the social studies community within the last 6 or 7 years. These topics were grouped into five main parts: (1) "Revisioning the Social Studies for the 21st Century"; (2) "Reimagining the Role of the Disciplines in Social Studies"; (3) "Responding to Established Curricular Influences on Social Studies"; (4) Reconceptualizing Views of Knowing as Influences on Social Studies Teaching and Learning"; and (5) "Reconsidering Students' Ways of Knowing as Influences on Social Studies Learning." Each part contains multiple subdivisions, and each of the five main areas contains a reference list and possible implications of the literature/research for development of the social studies K-12 common curriculum framework. (BT)

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Reshaping the Future of Social Studies:

Literature/Research Review

Prepared for the

Western Canadian Protocol

Social Studies K–12 Project

SO 031 604

C. Andrews

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FOREWORD

This literature/research review was conducted to provide information to guide future work on the Western Canadian Protocol Social Studies K–12 Project. Although direction was given to the researchers/writers to establish parameters for the task, the content of this document reflects the writers' perspectives on topics and subjects reviewed and does not necessarily reflect the positions of the ministries represented on the Western Canadian Protocol Social Studies K–12 Project Team.

MESSAGE FROM THE RESEARCHERS/WRITERS

Our mandate from the Curriculum Standards Branch of Alberta Learning was to conduct an international review of literature in order to highlight social studies issues and trends and to conduct a review of current research related to learning and teaching in social studies. The literature/research review was to encompass the years 1992 to 1998. The purpose of this review was to inform the development of the Western Canadian Protocol Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework and the development of the Foundation Document for the Framework.

The contents of the review were developed through an examination of international and national social studies journals, textbooks, research handbooks, publications and conference programs to determine topics that have been of interest to the social studies community within the last six or seven years. These topics were grouped to determine the five main sections of this review. The five broad areas were approved by the Western Canadian Protocol Social Studies K–12 Project Team. Specific direction was given to provide expanded versions of three of the five areas—revisioning the social studies, reimagining the role of the disciplines and reconceptualizing views of knowing—and to highlight in point form key ideas in the remaining two areas—responding to established curricular influences and reconsidering students' ways of knowing. Direction was also given to provide a reference list for each of the five areas and possible implications of the literature/research for development of the social studies K–12 common curriculum framework.

The review undertaken was a broad synthesis of relevant research and literature in the key areas identified, not an exhaustive and complete search in any specific area.

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and
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PART 1: REVISIONING THE SOCIAL STUDIES FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

PURPOSES AND GOALS OF SOCIAL STUDIES: SITUATING ISSUES OF CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

How does the literature on citizenship education and the purposes of social studies inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

Educating for citizenship is becoming increasingly more important worldwide in the light of mounting consumerism, global interest in the possibilities for democracy and unprecedented political apathy (De Simone, 1996; Osborne, 1997; Patrick, 1997a; Patrick and Sarma, 1997; Remy and Strzemieczny, 1997). Youth today in Canada, Australia, the United States and Great Britain, have been characterized as knowing less, caring less, voting less and being less critical of leaders and institutions than their predecessors of the last 50 years (Kymlicka, 1992; Longstreet, 1996; Print, 1996). This cynicism has been attributed to a lack of efficacy and alienation from the matters of the nation and the world (Wade and Saxe, 1996). Many teachers and other adults share these same feelings (Cogan, 1996; Print, 1996). Consequently, some claim that the rights of the democratic citizenry are falling into disuse (Hughes and Sears, 1996; Ochoa-Becker, 1996). In Canada, for example, citizenship has tended to be characterized by passive acceptance of citizenship rights, widespread apathy, a loss of public-spiritedness, disregard for the common good and little active exercise of citizenship responsibilities (Kymlicka, 1992). Some claim that this may be attributed to what is seen as a recent shift away from a focus on citizenship education in schooling to an emphasis on the links between education and economic prosperity (Osborne, 1996; Print, 1996). It would appear that even though the teaching of citizenship has long been a goal of schooling, citizenship education has failed to take hold in schools (Kaltsounis, 1994). And yet, becoming a good citizen is not innate; it is behaviour that must be learned (Cogan, 1996).

While educating for citizenship is generally recognized as a school-wide phenomenon, social studies is the school subject that has been agreed upon as the best place to formally address it in the curriculum (Anderson and Anderson, 1994). The main justification for including social studies in the curriculum has been that democratic countries must educate for effective citizenship. Thus, citizenship education has become the main goal of social studies around the world. Unfortunately, one of the central points of confusion within social studies lies in this focus on citizenship. Citizenship is a vague and shifting concept because it includes personal conceptions of what it means to be a "good" citizen (Osborne, 1996). Underlying assumptions not only about what constitutes a good citizen but also about the nature of knowledge, social reality and learning directly influence how social studies is understood and how choices are made

about what specific social studies goals best achieve good citizens (Brophy, 1991). As a result, there continue to be disputes among those in the field of social studies about what should be taught as social studies and how it should be taught (Thornton, 1994).

The following discussion represents the alternative views most often referred to in the literature of how social studies curriculum should contribute to citizenship education (Barr, Barth and Shermis, 1977; Case, 1997; Janzen, 1995; Marker and Mehlinger, 1992; Osborne, 1991/1997; Thornton, 1994; Vinson, 1998). Each of these alternative ways of thinking about citizenship education represents differing views of what constitutes a good citizen, what that citizen needs to know, and the roles of teachers and students in acquiring that important knowledge.

Social Studies from a Cultural Conservation Orientation

The worldview on which the cultural conservation orientation is based holds that knowledge is objective, measurable, and can be culturally shared. Social phenomena exist naturally and independently of the knower, rather than being socially constructed by the knower (Smith, 1993). Through consensus of authorities, certain unquestioned knowledge assumptions and beliefs are deemed to be the core values of society (Brady, 1993). These are treated as self-evident truths, and are thought to remain relatively constant over time. In order to establish a common identity and a strong sense of community, all citizens of a nation must be exposed to this common body of knowledge. The best way to adhere to democratic principles is by passing on the ideas and accomplishments of influential people and the history of the cultures that have been most influential in shaping a nation (Janzen, 1995). This officially controlled knowledge is imperative for a good citizen to know in order to develop loyalty and commitment to the nation and to ensure cultural conservation and social unity (Osborne, 1991; Thornton, 1994). This is a passive vision of citizenship aimed at making homogeneous citizens who have the same body of knowledge and "get the same message from that knowledge" (Sears, 1996).

Social studies that is rooted in the cultural conservation view is typical of traditional subject matter approaches in schools that assign the teacher the responsibility for transmitting certain preestablished knowledge and beliefs that are recognized as core values of society. The purpose of this transmission of beliefs is to produce citizens who will guarantee cultural survival. There is an assumption that indoctrination, memorization and retention of this important factual knowledge will lead to application of these ideas to real-life and will ensure conformity to the status quo (Glassford, 1996/97). From this perspective, the student receives the important knowledge from the textbook and teacher as experts and is left with the task of memorizing and understanding it. The student is to learn and believe this particular conception of citizenship without question (Osborne, 1991).

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Most classrooms still rely on this form of citizenship education, which is dominated by lectures, worksheets, heavy reliance on one textbook and structured question-and-answer sessions (Cassidy and Bognar, 1991; Cuban, 1993; Grelle and Metzger, 1996; Osborne, 1991). However, critiques of this approach to citizenship education note that knowledge alone does not lead to good citizenship (Smits, 1997). Also the curriculum topics from this orientation become something to be acquired, not explored and converted into personal meaning (Engle, 1996). This approach perpetuates an overly narrow and Eurocentric definition of the curriculum and a constricted and uncritical conception of citizenship (Grelle and Metzger, 1996). The passive knower model of citizenship also ignores the importance of political efficacy and ultimately subverts effective citizenship education (Schimmel, 1997). By promoting this transmission approach social studies can do little to end the reproduction of a society "in which a rich, well-educated elite dominates a passive working class" (Chamberlin, 1991).

Social Studies from a Disciplines Orientation

This orientation of social studies for citizenship education is based on the structure-of-the-disciplines movement. Central to this view is the belief that the various social science disciplines have generated the best approaches to thinking about the world as it really is and that these techniques for gathering knowledge through varied forms of inquiry can be taught as a way of helping students to solve problems. Citizenship is best promoted by problem solving and decision making based on the mastery of concepts and processes from the major social science fields of study as students learn to "see the world through the eyes of social scientists" (Vinson, 1998). A good citizen needs to understand these concepts and processes in order to become an effective decision maker. It is believed that mastery of these concepts and methods of scholarly inquiry in the social science disciplines will assist in building a knowledge base for future learning and will transfer to discharging the duties of a citizen in adult life (Martorella, 1996).

The content of social studies from a disciplines orientation is drawn from the various social science disciplines. Each of those disciplines has an important structure, underlying concepts and method(s) of inquiry. Often labelled as discovery learning, this approach advocates students acquiring the skills and dispositions needed for solving problems based on the various social sciences. In this approach, the social studies teacher's role is central as s/he decides what problems will be investigated, determines what methods will be applied to the investigation and guides students to the correct interpretation of the investigation. The student's job is to act by taking the information and using it according to the dictates of the teacher to "discover" the solution to a preselected problem. The student is required to accept and incorporate the social science model that s/he is being asked to use to complete the research. The students will then better understand how social scientists gather knowledge and be able to draw on the right set of concepts, structures and processes when faced with a particular problem in the future.

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Currently in the United States, rather than thinking of the disciplines as contributors to the social studies, there is a resurgence in emphasizing the importance of the disciplines as entities with their own bodies of knowledge which are indispensable for good citizenship (Brady, 1993). However, critics of the disciplines orientation argue that issues of social studies do not fit the logical tidiness and standardized procedures of the methods of inquiry represented in this model. There are a multiplicity of perspectives that can be found in any one social science discipline. As well, knowledge is not neutral, objective and universal but rather reflects human interests, the culture of the social scientists and the power relationships within a society. Hence knowledge is a dynamic and changing social construction that reflects the experiences, perspectives and values of the people that construct it (Banks, 1995). This approach also presumes that human experience can be segmented into parts and understood by studying these separate pieces (Brady, 1993). Also rigorous adherence to the established disciplines can result in the imposition of a closed system of thought, leaving students with little control over the choice of content and method of inquiry to use in the investigation (Popkewitz, 1977). Thus, too much of the control for the learning is placed in the hands of the teacher and the official curriculum. Additionally, there is an assumption that good citizens will emerge from the rigorous and linear study of the knowledge, skills and methods of the social science disciplines; however, there is no evidence to support that claim (Cogan, 1996). Lastly, there is the contention that lessons, such as those provided by the study of history, can no longer be depended upon to provide answers in this time of ongoing dynamic change (Engle, 1996).

Social Studies from an Inquiry Orientation

Social studies from an inquiry orientation is grounded in the belief that people must interact with ideas and things in order to make knowledge for themselves; thus, the knower and the known are closely intertwined. Reality is socially constructed, not out there waiting to be discovered, and human beings interpret things in many ways. Understanding social studies and the issues inherent in it is recognized as being a socially constructed as well as highly reflective process that is unique to each individual (Armento, 1991). Meaning is constructed as the individual attempts to make sense of a perplexing situation through reflective thinking and inquiry. Democracy necessitates a citizenry capable of identifying problems; collecting, evaluating and analyzing information; and making reasoned decisions (Vinson, 1998). Citizenship is envisioned as decision making in a socio-political context in which students learn to analyze choices, envision consequences and make better decisions on issues they view as having an effect on the quality of their lives. It is recognized that problems rarely have a single correct solution, but rather that citizens are required to make decisions between several possible solutions. The search for knowledge is recognized as an open-ended, continuous process (Engle, 1996). Engaging students in real-life decision making

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situations allows students to better understand how all levels of society interconnect (McGeown, 1995). Issues-centred education guides students to think of the public welfare rather than their own self-interest (Ochoa-Becker, 1996).

The inquiry approach to social studies emphasizes students investigating, inquiring and thinking for themselves. This approach is skill-based citizenship education in which students are provided with experiences that approximate reality in order to acquire competence in skills such as inquiry, communication, critical thinking and decision making. From this perspective, students play a more active role in learning about citizenship as they practise the skills needed for their future roles. The process of inquiry begins with the interests of the students, as problems that directly affect their lives within a specified socio-political context are central. Students play an active role in conducting the investigation into these problems with teachers acting as facilitators. The outcome of the investigation is not known ahead. Drawing on issues from current events has been found to be a successful way of generating student questions and drawing them into the inquiry (Chilcoat, 1996; Clarke and Zelinski, 1992; McGeown, 1995).

Critics of the inquiry orientation claim that this approach does not go far enough. While nurturing the abilities for meaningful decision making is important, this approach does little to promote students' feelings of efficacy. Research indicates that teachers focus more on the knowledge base with less attention to the participatory skills and attitudes necessary for effective citizenship education for students (Ramsay, 1997). However, students must put democratic principles into immediate practice through direct involvement or there can be no true understanding of citizenship (Chamberlin, 1991; Hartoonian, 1993). A second criticism has to do with the hesitancy of teachers to investigate problems and issues of a controversial nature involving personal valuing and moral debate (Houser, 1996; Lockwood, 1995; Osborne, 1991/1996; Shaver, 1992). Mindless issues-centred education is no more justifiable than mindless rote education (Shaver, 1992). Thirdly, some critics claim that this approach is too vague about its content, which diminishes the important roles of history and the other social sciences (Ochoa-Becker, 1996).

Social Studies from a Cultural Transformation Orientation

Cultural transformation as an orientation to social studies seeks to encourage understanding, emancipatory learning and the development of critical consciousness through analysis of repressive social conditions. At the heart of this orientation is a belief that education and society need to be transformed, as current educational and social arrangements are unjust and unequal (van Manen, 1977). Inherent in this orientation is a belief that humans are capable of resisting the pressure of the dominant social, political and economic institutions and of acting upon and transforming these institutions. While humans

have the potential to change their situations, the realization of this potential is dependent upon the awakening of their awareness to their situations in order that they may broaden their choices of action (Jacknicke and Rowell, 1987). Developing the skills of perspective consciousness helps the student to recognize, examine, evaluate and appreciate multiple perspectives on particular problems. The process of making informed and reasoned decisions includes analyzing the extent to which the existing cultural assumptions and beliefs are at odds with democratic education (Alter, 1997). This orientation stems from a broad concern with issues such as social justice, freedom, equality, human rights and power.

Social studies as cultural transformation is aimed at providing opportunities for examination, critique and revision of past traditions and existing social practices (Martorella, 1996). Students are taught to challenge traditional forms of knowledge and detect hidden forms of domination and oppression within the knowledge officially sanctioned by schools (Vinson, 1998). Students are empowered, given a voice in the classroom and seen as active agents of change. The primary objective is to create a citizenry that is not just simply more active in public affairs, but whose involvement is guided and informed by morally reflective judgement based on critical discourse (Clarke, 1990).

In actual classroom practice, this orientation has been manifested in such approaches as citizenship education for action (Lewis, 1991; Chamberlin, 1991/1992) and critical pedagogy to support social justice in the classroom and beyond (Jennings, Crowell and Ferlund, 1994; Kanpol, 1994; Ulkpokodu, 1994). The social action approach is values driven and focuses on helping students to develop a strong sense of political efficacy, by identifying personal value questions in relation to issues and then acting on their value commitments (Chamberlin, 1991/1992). Essential to this way of thinking about citizenship education is the emotive component of being a citizen (Richardson, 1997). Issues around how we should live with others in our world allow students to experience relevant ethical decision making and actions that are embedded in caring for others (Smits, 1997).

The critical pedagogy approach to citizenship education for cultural transformation emphasizes empowering students to make change by raising their consciousness about oppression. Active student involvement, an open and safe classroom environment and recognition of the many voices and experiences represented in the inclusive classroom are central principles to this approach (Ulkpokodu, 1994). Dialogue in the classroom is important for raising consciousness and challenging official knowledge (Bloom, 1998). Through the sharing of personal stories students are encouraged to investigate issues of inequity and oppression, and the social, economic and political forces that cause oppression, and to search for emancipatory possibilities (Kanpol, 1994). Raising consciousness then becomes the catalyst for activism.

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Where some people differ in this social action orientation is on the degree of involvement that is necessary for students to experience. Some advocate that a community service approach can be as effective as an activist approach, which seeks to influence social and institutional change (Lewis, 1991). However, others contend that while community service is a part of being a good citizen, learning how to be a good neighbour does not necessarily promote an understanding of how to be an effective and politically active citizen (Kymlicka, 1992). Others suggest that schools as microsocieties, in which the student participates as a constructive member of a self-governed society, can be equally as effective in teaching social criticism (Hoge, 1997).

The orientation toward citizenship education in social studies curricula across Canada is to promote wide and active citizen participation; however, the curriculum-stated preference does not necessarily carry forward into practice (Sears and Hughes, 1996). The most common criticism of the social activist orientation is that action for the sake of action can be a disservice to students (Hughes and Sears, 1996). More importantly the stress needs to be put on making wise choices about what action to take and when to take it and to balance students' sense of political efficacy with trust and support (Glassford, 1992). There is also a reluctance by some to support this approach to citizenship education because it poses a threat to civil peace and stability (Cherryholmes, 1996).

Social Studies from a Personal Development Orientation

This orientation to citizenship education focuses on the social and personal in social studies. Central to this orientation is a belief that concern for the development of self is foremost in the preparation of citizens. Self-esteem and a strong sense of identity are essential in the lives of good citizens and are necessary foundations for effective and productive interpersonal, social relationships (Joyce and Weil, 1992). Citizenship education based on this orientation is aimed at developing a positive self-concept and feelings of personal efficacy within students (Martorella, 1996). An emphasis on ethics is important to this orientation in order to ensure that students have a strong sense of right and wrong to assist them in their problem solving and decision making. Students need to form the personal standards, values and beliefs that will guide their decisions and actions for life. The acquisition of virtue is deemed to be the greatest safeguard of the nation and the world, as it ensures ethical relationships (Hartoonian, 1993). As well, effective democratic citizenship involves understanding one's freedom to make choices and obligations to live with the outcomes of that choice making. Central to this orientation is encouraging students to search for their own personal meaning within their own experiences and to understand the significance of social issues to their own lives. Also students need to understand how to function in both their personal and social worlds (Noddings, 1995a). Included should be the knowledge and skills of the private sphere of family membership and homemaking, which are as important to citizenship as the skills of political organization and social action (Noddings, 1992a).

The good citizen also needs to learn to become a responsible member of society through interactions with others. Learning the skills of social participation, such as working effectively as a group, are focal to this orientation. Fostering concern and caring for others are also central components (Noddings, 1995b). The creation of caring communities begins in the social studies classroom with the interactions between students and teachers and with the messages inherent in the hidden curriculum. By stressing human relationships a focus on classroom community can educate students about the importance of cooperation to the survival of democracy.

This orientation to thinking about citizenship education has been influential in social studies education, particularly with regard to actual classroom practice (Janzen, 1995). Often included under this orientation are character education (Lockwood, 1995), values education (Wright, 1995), moral education (Mabe, 1993), creative thinking and personal expression (Joyce and Weil, 1992), and cooperative learning (Myers, 1997). The latter emphasizes students learning to work together to achieve a common objective while acquiring various participatory skills and the virtues associated with them (Patrick, 1997b). Learners involved regularly in cooperative learning activities can develop such skills as leadership, conflict resolution, negotiation, compromise and constructive criticism (Myers, 1997; Slavin, 1991). A popular approach for teaching values is the use of children's literature, which exposes students to interesting people who exemplify civic virtues. Such exposure can help students to understand the meaning and morality of civic life (Patrick, 1997b).

This orientation has tended to generate a great deal of criticism, particularly in terms of how decisions are made about the values and character traits to be taught and the approach that should be taken to the teaching of those values (Leming, 1996). Teachers bring their values to the classroom and model those values for their students both overtly and covertly. Thus, teachers need to carefully examine the values they portray through their teaching, as students can be strongly influenced by teacher modelling (Cangemi and Aucoin, 1996). As well, teaching values frequently requires teaching about controversial issues. Since many teachers are uncomfortable with and feel unprepared to deal with value-laden controversial issues, they tend to steer away from anything that could be perceived to be sensitive (Belitto, 1996; Levitt and Longstreet, 1993). Teachers also stay away from values education because of the press of the existing curriculum and the demand for accountability of cognitive outcomes (Leming, 1996). Current directions in values education favour the character education movement.

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Social Studies from a Respect for Diversity Orientation

The respect for diversity orientation to citizenship education is based on the premise that good citizens need to learn structures for accepting and appreciating diversity. This orientation moves the purpose of citizenship education from establishing a national identity of one people different from all other people to thinking about new ways of seeing ourselves (Richardson, 1997; Sears and Hughes, 1996). It is based on the premise that every minority group should have both the freedom and the opportunity to find a place in society. Despite legal acknowledgement of these rights, the difficulty at times of actually being able to exercise those rights remains for minority cultures and women (Sears, 1996). Feminists maintain that citizenship as a concept has resulted in the oppression of women because of the way that it privileges certain forms of social organization (Noddings, 1992a; Strong-Boag, 1996).

The respect for diversity orientation promotes valuing of cultural diversity and the acceptance of diverse cultural understandings and of a mosaic of different belief systems and ways of life (Burtonwood, 1996). Every nation needs to strive for the "emotional generosity" that allows diverse groups to live together (Callan, 1994). Educational experiences are designed to promote retaining a variety of cultural identities. Central to this orientation is the realization that mainstream British and French cultural perspectives dominate the curriculum as do their interpretations of other cultures. The struggles of minority cultures and women have traditionally been rendered invisible in textbooks. Concepts such as identity that are currently addressed in social studies curriculum tend to be defined in very narrow, static terms that do not resonate for many students in social studies classes (Richardson, 1997). Students need to gain an accurate picture of human experience through redefined and reconstructed subject matter based on both men's and women's ways of experiencing, seeing and knowing the world (Osborne, 1991).

Distinctions are made in the research literature between multicultural education and anti-racist education (Carrington and Short, 1997; Kehoe, 1994/1997; Ellington, 1998). Multicultural education entails "learning about the multiplicity of the heritages that comprise Canada, and appreciating and celebrating Canada's multicultural nature ... The intent behind multicultural education is to demonstrate that cultural differences are a positive thing, and that they should be recognized and respected" (Price, 1992, p. 10). Multicultural programs in schools, however, have most often been of the curriculum-based contributions and additives types, such as celebrations of the food, dress and music of individual cultures (Banks, 1988/1994)—otherwise referred to as the "tourist" approach to diversity (Jones and Derman-Sparks, 1992). This approach amounts to teaching students about ethnic groups (Ellington, 1998). However, paying attention to the differences creates divisions (Jones and Derman-Sparks, 1992). Also such limited, superficial and particularistic exposure to material cultures tends to perpetuate stereotypes and misrepresent cultural realities (Ellington, 1998;

Ladson-Billings, 1996). By not dealing with injustices through investigation of substantive issues such as systemic, institutional inequalities, there is a risk of promoting racism (Kymlicka, 1992; Walker and Garcia, 1995). Banks (1988/1994) advocates instead for a transformative curriculum for multicultural education, which helps students to know, to care and to act in ways that will develop and foster a democratic system and a just society in which all groups experience democracy and empowerment.

Anti-racist education takes a different approach to addressing cultural diversity. Advocates claim that missing from multicultural efforts is a way for "Whites" to be a part of the racial dialogue because putting the emphasis on ethnicity and culture over race excludes considerations of "Whites" as members of a racial group (Carter and Goodwin, 1994). By not appreciating their own racial group membership, the ability to understand the racial experiences of others is limited. Through the anti-racist approach, the deeper issues of race, prejudice, stereotyping and discrimination, both past and present, that cause rifts between people are overtly addressed in the classroom (McGregor, 1993). Racism is recognized as being inherent in all aspects of school life. It needs to be dealt with through active intervention and discussion on the part of teachers and students (Price, 1992). Anti-racist pedagogy helps students to understand that ethnic and cultural prejudice and discrimination can take diverse forms. Discussion has been found to be a positive approach to addressing issues of racism, as students begin to see that differing viewpoints about race exist and are part of broader, more complex socio-economic and political issues (Wlodkowski and Ginsberg, 1995). Anti-racist pedagogy can also help students to understand that discrimination and ethnic and cultural prejudice can take diverse forms. Educating about the Holocaust, for example, sensitizes students to dangers of indifference, intolerance, racism and dehumanization of others (Carrington and Short, 1997). Teaching about racism increases students' ability to recognize injustice and change it as well as identify causation (Kehoe, 1994).

Much of the criticism of the respect for diversity orientation comes from the tension between achieving cohesion as a society and enabling people to live lives consistent with their own identity (Burtonwood, 1996). Some believe that there is a core body of knowledge that every citizen of a country should learn, while others acknowledge that there is a shared body of knowledge that is enhanced through diversity (Price, 1992; Ravitch, 1992). Other critics claim that understanding and accepting diversity in terms of national citizenship is too narrow a view of education for diversity (Janzen, 1994). There needs to be greater global emphasis on how much the citizens of Canada share with citizens throughout the world (Kymlicka, 1992).

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Social Studies from a Global Orientation

The global orientation is founded on the belief that there is an ever increasing need to conceptualize citizens of the 21st century as global citizens who understand their place in the world (Hughes and Sears, 1996). The world is now characterized by a growing interdependence among nations. The globalization of the world economy, the increasing spread of democratization, the emergence of powerful trading blocks, the heightened movement of people across national boundaries and the breakdown of time and space barriers afforded by communications technology have all contributed to the need to develop a broad worldview about global issues, global systems and common elements of human values and cultures. A global perspective includes the knowledge and attitudes that reflect an awareness of the pluralistic, interdependent and changing nature of the world community and the skills to cope with the resultant rapid change. This orientation moves beyond the study of cultural beliefs and practices within the nation state to the interconnected nature of life on a global scale, with an emphasis on things that tie all humans together in order to better understand and appreciate the delicate relationship between humans and the natural world (Kymlicka, 1992).

This orientation requires economic, political and social awareness that goes beyond the national consciousness (Sears, 1996). Citizenship narrowly defined as "national citizenship", which is dependent upon a shared sense of place, heritage and solidarity with other fellow citizens, is in sharp contrast to the economic priorities of the new world order (Osborne, 1996). Promoting a national identity may undermine the goal of citizenship education that promotes the development of the capacity for independent and critical thought about society and its problems. The emphasis from the global education perspective is on how much citizens in Canada share with citizens throughout the world, including shared basic values (Kymlicka, 1992). Critics fear the loss of a common national identity that could result from such an orientation (Ravitch, 1992).

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION AND THE PURPOSES OF SOCIAL STUDIES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- articulate the important role that social studies as a school subject has to play in the overall educational experience of students
- recognize the continued emphasis, both nationally and globally, on the preparation of students for democratic citizenship as the primary goal of social studies
- carefully consider what vision(s) of Canada and the Canadian experience to convey to students
- reflect an appropriate balance between the emphasis on national citizenship and global citizenship
- articulate appropriate knowledge, skills and dispositions that will encourage an active, participatory, engaged citizenry

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- recognize the emphasis on citizens as thoughtful and ethical decision makers, which permeates the social studies literature on citizenship education
- address concerns about students' feelings of lack of efficacy and alienation
- reflect careful attention to the diverse nature of Canadian society and to the previously silenced voices of many of its citizens
- acknowledge the importance of teaching care and concern for others
- encourage alternative ways of thinking about teaching in order to encourage active learner engagement rather than more passive views of learning.

APPROACHES TO SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM DESIGN: SCOPE AND SEQUENCING

How does the literature on curriculum design inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

When designing curriculum a number of factors need to be considered. First and foremost, there must be clarity about the goals of the program and the particular citizenship education orientation(s) shaping those goals, as these will determine what content is deemed to be most important (Brophy and Alleman, 1993). Secondly, curriculum designers must address questions about the scope or what is to be taught—including the information, ideas, skills, values and attitudes—and the depth and breadth of that content (Horton, 1997). The scope is partially determined by the view held of what students need to know to act intelligently and responsibly both as present and future citizens (Ellis et al., 1991). Another consideration is how that content is to be sequenced or the order in which the important knowledge, skills, attitudes and dispositions are to be taught. Central to any of these considerations should be the developmental readiness of the students, as well as their interests and the background knowledge and life experiences they arrive with at school.

There are many possibilities offered in the literature for addressing scope and sequencing questions. Several of the more common approaches are presented here. The first, the expanding horizons approach, has been the most widely used approach to date and thus has the largest body of literature written about it. The rest of the approaches suggest alternative ways of thinking about how to organize curricular content for teaching.

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1. Expanding horizons approach (expanding environments)

   This approach involves the curriculum being taught in increments or in a developmental sequence that begins with examples from the local environment then expands outward from there. It proceeds from simple to complex, from familiar to unfamiliar and from known to unknown. Primary students begin social studies by increasing self-awareness through the study of what is familiar, namely the home and the school. The horizons of the curriculum then widen to neighbourhoods, cities, regions, nations and the world (Wright, 1995).

   Hand in hand with the expanding horizons approach to thinking about the scope of the curriculum has traditionally been the spiral approach to sequencing. This approach was designed to enhance the key ideas of reinforcement, concept and skill development and the transfer of learning from one grade to the next (Ellis, 1995). It requires the introduction of concepts and skills at simple levels with numerous revisits over the total span of the curriculum at deeper levels of sophistication.

   Critics of the expanding horizons approach have expressed a number of concerns with this approach to designing curriculum. One concern is the rigid and lock step manner in which the expanding horizons approach has been implemented, which does not acknowledge the complexity of the learning process (McKay, 1996). Another concern is that topics that were once thought to be beyond young students, such as global issues, wars, terrorism and pollution, are now recognized as being part of the young student's world because of exposure through electronic media and more frequent travel. Hence, social studies that limits the scope of the content to be studied to the child's immediate surroundings is no longer considered to be sophisticated enough for future generations of students (Clarke and Smyth, 1993). A third concern is that the child development principles upon which this approach is based are unfounded. Egan (1986) claims, for example, that beginning with the familiar and expanding gradually to the unfamiliar, and proceeding from the concrete to the abstract and the simple to the complex, are not adequate ways of thinking about how children learn. He suggests that children are in fact able to conceptualize, fantasize and make mental models of what they may never have experienced before. He claims that what children know best are very abstract concepts, such as good and bad or love and hate, which should be the basis for organizing the curriculum (see Ekdahl, 1996 for an example of binary opposites as organizers). Others concur that the study of a difficult concept, such as cultural diversity, should not be delayed, as young students are not being made culturally aware and sensitive at a time when they are most open to the idea of diversity (Kehoe, 1997).

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2. The discipline based approach

The discipline based approach to content planning is based on the recognition that within each discipline there exists a basic structure composed of concepts and processes that should be adapted for study at all grade levels. History and geography are at the centre of the discipline based curriculum. History is presented as an orderly plan in which historical eras are examined through studies of living together in the past and present, of early peoples of the world, of classical and medieval civilizations, of the nation's history and of world history (Downey, 1986). This approach is often melded with a sequence of chronological history as it is believed to be logically necessary to know some things before knowing others (Wright, 1995). Time and chronology are recognized as difficult concepts for which young students are not necessarily ready. Geography based planning often takes the form of regional or area studies that are centred around geopolitical units. Critics of this approach to scope and sequence contend that this is a very narrow and confining way of studying the world that ignores the holistic manner in which students observe their world.

3. The concerns based approach

This approach to content planning usually takes one concern area as the organizer for the entire curriculum and revisits that concern at greater depth over subsequent years. Some of the more common examples of concern based organizers include: environmental education, peace education, human rights education and global education. A concerns based framework for global education, for example, might include the following essential elements of study: systems (economic, political, ecological and technological); universal and diverse human values; persistent issues and problems at the local, regional, national and global levels; and global history. Conceptual themes that would be considered central to the development of a global perspective would also be integral to this framework. These might include: interdependence, scarcity, needs and wants, change, hunger, poverty, peace and security (Kniep, 1989).

While addressing concerns, such as global education, is acknowledged as being important to the study of social studies, a problem with this approach to organizing curriculum is the narrow focus that tends to reflect only what is perceived to be the most current priority issue. A more generic approach to addressing concerns is the problem based approach, which has a broader content focus that would include studying problems and issues relevant to all of the concern areas mentioned above as well as others. Using this approach, students apply reflective inquiry and higher order thinking to make reasoned judgements about diverse areas of local, national and global concern.

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4. The thematic/integrated approach

The thematic/integrated approach to curriculum planning provides a framework in which concept and skill acquisition becomes more important than factual intake and recall. The purpose of the thematic/integrated approach is to organize the study of society into multidisciplinary parts to promote understanding and emphasize the process of learning (Cangemi and Aucoin, 1996; Underhill and Thompson, 1993). Central to this organizing framework is an understanding and appreciation of the extent to which learning is interrelated rather than separated into a variety of discrete topics and skills. Advocates of integration claim that students learn best when they make connections with their experiences; integration increases relevance and motivation to learn; the recent rapid increase in knowledge is better managed through integration; integration allows for more in-depth study; and integration decreases the duplication of information and concepts (Conner, 1997; Diem, 1996; Dohr, 1993; Ediger, 1994; Lamme and Hysmith, 1993; McKay, 1996; Nickell, 1995; Roberts, 1996; Selwyn, 1993; Sherman, 1993). The curriculum strands of the Social Studies Expectations of Excellence in the United States (NCSS, 1994) urge "fostering entirely new and highly integrated approaches to resolving issues of significance to humanity" so that social studies programs reflect the changing nature of knowledge. The ten integrated themes around which the social studies are to be organized include: culture; time, continuity and change; people, places and environments; individual development and identity; individual groups and intuitions; power, authority and governance; production, distribution and consumption; science, technology and society; global connections; and civic ideals and practices (Conner, 1997; Dohr, 1993; Hartoonian and Laughlin, 1995; Krey, 1995; Porter, 1995). However, critics of this approach to planning claim that there is a loss of academic rigor when the focus of social studies is taken off the acquisition of the essential bodies of knowledge from each of the social science disciplines.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON CURRICULUM DESIGN FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- consider the questions of scope and sequence. The design chosen should best reflect the goals and orientation(s) of the social studies program, the knowledge deemed to be most important to those goals and the development needs, interests and experiences of the students
- consider whether curricular content is best perceived as something to be acquired or as something to be explored and understood by students of social studies.

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PART 2: REIMAGINING THE ROLE OF THE DISCIPLINES IN SOCIAL STUDIES

A General Note: A Transformative Perspective on the Social Sciences

This section, addressing the role of the disciplines in social studies, is based on a perspective exemplified by James Banks (1995) when he argues that within the last two decades many transformations have taken place in the social sciences and these have not been reflected in the teaching of social studies in the schools. He argues that social studies continues to present institutionalized, mainstream academic knowledge in the social sciences as if that knowledge is neutral, objective and universal. This occurs despite the fact that perspectives on knowledge in the social sciences have changed, based on challenges by groups such as scholars of colour and feminist scholars. Many of the social sciences now reflect a perspective that knowledge is neither universal nor neutral, but reflects human interests, the cultures of social scientists and the power relationships within society. Banks suggests that the knowledge construction process must be a key component of the social studies curriculum, so that students understand how social science knowledge is created and influenced by racial, ethnic and class positions of individuals and groups. He forcefully argues that the social studies curriculum must be revised to reflect democratic values and the challenges and ferment that exist in the social science disciplines. Social science knowledge can no longer be presented to students as a body of facts that are not to be questioned. This is no longer consistent with the transformations taking place within the social science disciplines. Through teaching students how knowledge is constructed and reconstructed, the social studies curriculum will help them attain the knowledge, skills and attitudes that are crucial for effective citizenship in the 21st century.

HISTORY

How does the literature on history teaching and learning inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

Orientation

While history has long been a staple in the social studies curriculum (Thornton, 1997), it is also among the most controversial subjects in the curriculum in general (Levstik, 1996a). The recent literature and research related to the place of history in the social studies curriculum reflects an ongoing debate by policymakers, researchers, teachers of history and the general public on the aims of teaching and learning history (Levstik, 1996b; Lybarger, 1991; Seixas, 1993a). Questions of the place and goals of history teaching and learning and the selection of content and pedagogy predominate in the debates. In 1994, the National Council for the Social Studies released a set of K–12 curriculum standards for social studies, several of which address the

teaching and learning of history. National curriculum standards for history have been developed in the United States, by the National Center for History in the Schools (1994). Downey and Levstik (1991), citing reports from West Germany and France, Great Britain, Nigeria, and Kenya, conclude that the concern about the status of history in schools and its relevance to students is widespread. The teaching and learning of history debate is certainly of current interest in the Canadian context (see for example, Bliss, 1991; Granatstein, 1998; Seixas, 1998; Egan, 1997; Osborne, 1995/1997). As recently as 1991, Downey and Levstik reviewed the research base for the teaching and learning of history in the *Handbook of Research on Social Studies Teaching and Learning* and suggested that there has been a thin and uneven research base. Levstik (1991), in a similar review of research focused exclusively at the elementary level, concluded that there has been an even smaller research base to inform teaching and learning at the elementary level. While these reviews do provide some conclusions and implications from research conducted generally from the mid-1970s to the late 1980s, there now exists a considerable body of research on history teaching and learning. Thornton (1996/1997) cites overlapping developments in historical scholarship, research on students' historical thinking and documentation of promising classroom practices as the areas where great research progress has been made within the last ten years. Seixas (1996a) states that the last few years has seen an outpouring of work on historical understanding, and that the situation with regard to a lack of research on the teaching and learning of history has changed dramatically.

Perspectives on and Purposes of History in the Social Studies Curriculum

Recent scholarship in historical theory and historiography suggests that many historians are viewing history as a constructed, written task, based on evidence that is shaped by the historian's perspectives and assumptions (VanSledright, 1996). This perspective on history, as conflicting accounts of the past, rather than one account of the past, has influenced views of what school history should be. Researchers such as Barton, VanSledright, Levstik, Thornton, and Seixas, who are currently at the forefront of research on students' historical understanding, all argue for a K–12 school history curriculum that engages students in constructing historical understanding. VanSledright (1996) cautions that this is not a call for an exclusive focus on historical thinking at the expense of historical content, but rather a call for a move away from the memorization of disconnected details. He suggests (1997) that while pursuing depth in historical studies appears to be a worthwhile goal, there may be a variety of ways to accomplish depth. His research (1995/1996) reports that chronology alone appears to be necessary but insufficient for depth study. VanSledright suggests that the addition of sociocultural, economic and political dimensions to chronology, in a way that emphasizes the interconnections, is a promising alternative for creating depth of historical understanding.

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While she suggests that there have been several challenges to the place of history in social studies, Clark (1998) states that the achievement of citizenship goals has provided the underlying rationale for the inclusion of history in the curriculum. Thornton (1990/1996) asserts that the question has not been whether history serves citizenship goals, but rather *whose* conception of citizenship is served along a continuum from a cultural transmission conception to a cultural transformation conception. According to Levstik (1996a), a cultural transformation perspective on the place of history in the social studies curriculum would require a radical shift in classroom practice and public policy. Classroom practice would involve students in the "doing" of history, including posing questions, collecting and analyzing sources, struggling with issues of significance, and building historical interpretations. Levstik argues that the teaching and learning of history can only be transformative when the problems and sources utilized challenge students and teachers to rethink assumptions about the past and to reimagine both the present and the future. From her point of view (1996a), this instructional stance requires a view of history as more than the transmission of a single cultural story and a public policy that regards history as more of a work in progress than a finished product. Levstik (1997) calls for a pluralistic or perspectival history curriculum, characterized by in-depth inquiry and active participation by students in the co-construction of historical interpretations. She argues strongly that we cannot afford a history curriculum that renders some students voiceless and invisible and that ignores or de-emphasizes the impact of gender, ethnic, racial and class distinctions in the past or the present. Others argue for an issues-centred history curriculum that invites differences of opinion (Ferguson, 1996). Clark (1998) suggests that it is now generally accepted that school history has excluded women, the working class, and various races and ethnic groups, while focusing too much on "dead white males". This view arouses controversy over what happens to the traditional, established historical accounts when the histories of these excluded groups are considered. Strong-Boag (1998) argues that inclusive history that incorporates the full range of voices is intrinsically more interesting and more useful in illuminating the present as well as the future. Crocco (1997) also argues for a history curriculum in which women's and men's multiple realities, multiple perspectives and multiple identities are included.

Students' Historical Thinking

Research suggests that elementary students learn a great deal about history outside of school, from encounters with historic sites and artifacts, from stories told by relatives, and from the media (Barton, 1997a). Although they may not know the word *history* or connect the knowledge they have with school history, students' encounters with history, outside of school, are often in positive and interesting contexts and have an impact on promoting attitudes of interest and enthusiasm toward history (Barton and Levstik, 1996; Levstik and Barton, 1996). Studies by Brophy, VanSledright and Bredin (1992) and by McKeown and Beck (1990) also suggest that elementary students have an

interest in history and possess bits and pieces of historical information, including misconceptions. By giving students opportunities to make their previous historical knowledge explicit, teachers find out what knowledge they can extend and refine, what knowledge needs development, and what misconceptions need to be addressed. Research by Seixas (1993b) suggests that adolescents also come to the learning of school history with their own frameworks of historical understanding, garnered over the years from family, films, television, commemorations and their earlier school experiences. A study he conducted with Grade 11 students of varying ethnicities, highlighted the significant effect that ethnic identity and/or immigrant status had on the students' ideas about concepts of historical significance, agency, change and empathy. While Seixas notes that the students' diverse backgrounds and understandings were drawn upon in the classroom very little, he recommends that these ethnic and cultural backgrounds and understandings can be an effective means for teaching students to think historically. Epstein (1996/1997), in a study that also involved high school students, found that African American and European American students in the same classes constructed different perspectives on United States history. She concludes that understandings from sociocultural studies, such as those conducted by Seixas in Canada (1994); Alton-Lee, Nuthall and Patrick in New Zealand (1993); and her own work in the United States, provide clear direction for the design of history curricula and instruction that recognizes, respects and builds on the historical understandings that all students bring to school.

Barton (1997a) suggests that a major finding of recent research is that students know more about some historical topics than others. Recent work on elementary students' historical knowledge indicates that they know the least about political and diplomatic history; e.g., wars, elections, political leaders; and these are the topics about which they are the most confused, whether before or after study of the topic (Barton, 1997b; Barton and Levstik, 1996; Brophy, VanSledright and Bredin, 1992/1993; McKeown and Beck, 1990). The research indicates that student knowledge of social history, changes in everyday life and the way people treated each other, is much more well-developed than their knowledge of political and diplomatic history (Barton and Levstik, 1996; Downey, 1994; Levstik and Barton, 1996). In a recent study, Barton (1997b) reports that Grade 4 and Grade 5 students consistently focused on individual actions and intentions in history and ignored or misunderstood the role of political, economic or other societal institutions. He concludes that this pattern was not a result of poor instruction or the peripheral nature of the understandings, but rather was a central characteristic of the students' perceptions of historical information. Based on his research and those of other researchers cited above, Barton (1996a/1997a/1997b) argues for history in the elementary grades to begin with social history, as a basis for developing understandings of societal institutions and their role in history, and for the study of history to be part of an integrated

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social studies curriculum that focuses on the nature of society and social relations. He urges curriculum planners to remember that students must not only study content, such as famous people and events, but must also learn about the social relations that make those events and people meaningful. Barton suggests that social history as a starting point for instruction is supported from a cognitive standpoint, and also within the academic discipline of history as the connection between social and political history is extremely important.

Recent research and thinking on the use of historical narratives in the teaching of history has suggested that while "story" certainly engages students, students must be taught to approach narratives with a critical eye, recognizing that they are an author's interpretation of history (Barton, 1996b/1997a; Levstik, 1995/1996a; Seixas, 1997b). Levstik, whose research for over 15 years has focused on narrative and historical understanding, has found that while a historical novel elicits positive student response, it does not appear to trigger student questions about an author's correctness of interpretation. Levstik (1995) states that one of the most striking features across her studies of student response to historical narratives is the frequency with which they explain their interest in historical topics as a search for "the truth". She suggests that students seem to regard historical fiction as true and use it to judge the accuracy and authenticity of other information, such as that presented in the textbook. Teacher mediation was required to enable students to seriously consider that there might be alternatives to a literary interpretation of history. Teacher mediation included providing oral and written forums for discussions of feelings and perspectives on the literature and the use of multiple sources of information including a variety of genres. Levstik suggests that the use of narrative in the teaching and learning of history is important to encourage readers to recognize the human aspects of history; to see history as an ongoing, participatory drama; and, with some mediation, to develop a better sense of the interpretative and tentative nature of history (1995). She cautions however that history is more than narrative and that multiple sources must be used, including a full array of non-narrative genres. Students must be taught that narratives are also interpretations of history, open to question and scrutiny.

Research by Barton (1996b) on the use of narrative in the teaching and learning of history suggests that students may think of the past as *too much* like a story, assuming that historical developments proceeded in a linear fashion, and not recognizing that many things were going on simultaneously and that different people were having different experiences; in other words, narrative may lead to simplifications and misconceptions in students' historical understanding unless teacher mediation facilitates multiple perspectives through discussion and use of multiple sources. Wineberg (1991) researched how bright high school students read history textbooks and found that these students read the text as if it were "the facts" rather than an interpretation of history written from the perspective of the textbook author. Wineberg

argues that school history, must become a site of inquiry where students read historical accounts, whether fiction or nonfiction, by situating them in the social world and grappling with authors' intentions, rather than reading to uncritically gather information. Research by Levstik (1993) and Wilson (1990) supports Wineberg's call to begin teaching students in the early elementary years to question all accounts of history that they encounter and to recognize them as interpretations in time and space.

Lee (1998) argues that school history must go beyond learning accounts of the past to learning the nature and status of accounts of the past. In other words, it is not enough for students to be exposed to different versions of what happened; they also must be able to provide reasons for why accounts may differ. Research he has conducted investigates what ideas students aged 7 to 14 years have about why historical accounts differ. Lee reports that there is clear age-related progression from denial that accounts are different, to emphasis on problems of obtaining information, to emphasis on differences produced by the authors, to the idea that accounts differ because they answer different questions or set different parameters. Lee concludes that recognition of growth in students' historical understanding as a progression of ideas, should enable us to build history curricula and teach so that students understand that historical accounts are always provisional but grounded, having standards as well as perspectives.

Seixas (1997b) argues that we need to teach students to think historically, regardless of whether they are learning about the past through "traces"; e.g., official and unofficial, public and private documents, or through "accounts"; e.g., narratives and explanations. He suggests (1996b) that there are six elements of historical thinking that must be taught and are not subsumed under the more generic category of critical thinking. These include: historical significance, evidence, continuity and change, progress and decline, empathy and moral judgement, and historical agency. Seixas (1997b) argues that inclusion of specific skills related to historical thinking in social studies curriculum documents, would provide for a richer version of history education, one radically different from the approach to history education embedded in current social studies curricula. In his study of high school students' understandings of what makes an event or character historically significant, Seixas (1997a) found that there were a wide variety of approaches to the question of historical significance among the high school students. He suggests that in the absence of a sound notion of historical significance, students view history as an alienated body of facts, having little to do with them and their lives. He suggests that students need to explicitly discuss the question of historical significance and that it should be a central focus of history instruction in curriculum documents. Ongoing research in the United Kingdom, reported by Ashby, Lee and Dickinson (1997), supports the need for explicit instruction to develop historical understandings related to concepts of evidence and explanation, the "why" of history. Working

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with students from 8 to 14 years of age, these researchers conclude that even young students have a general understanding of the need to explain things in history, but that the students generally do not distinguish between explanation and giving information. Ashby, Lee and Dickinson suggest that it might be valuable to explicitly raise with students what historical explanations are, how they differ from statements of fact, and how they differ depending on what is being explained.

Promising Classroom Practices

Levstik and Barton (1996) found that students involved in music, drama, dance or fine arts activities remembered historic details involved in these activities. Such contexts enabled students to be active problem solvers. Grade 5 students involved in drama as part of academic instruction were aware of point of view in historical interpretation and considered alternative perspectives and possible motives in relation to historic events. Levstik and Barton recommend drama and simulations as important ways to connect students to history. Rothwell (1997) suggests that historical images can have great potency in helping to understand the historical consciousness of an era. Groth and Albert (1997) have explored the use of the arts in the development of historical thinking and suggest that when the arts are used as a vehicle for history content, both history and the arts are enhanced and multiple paths to learning are provided. Simpson (1995) maintains that practices that actively involve students are necessary to stimulate their historical imaginations. In a study done by Hootstein (1995) motivational strategies of middle school social studies teachers were explored from both the teacher and student point of view. The top five strategies listed by teachers in order of frequency were simulations, projects that involve creating a product, games, relating history to current events or students' lives, and historical novels. Students identified simulations and group discussions as the best single strategies used by their teachers and said that if they were the teacher the strategies they would use would include acting in dramatic presentations, watching films and videos, and playing games for review. Boix Mansilla (1998) suggests that many of these practices are successful because they take advantage of how the human brain and mind function; in other words, research on multiple intelligences and brain functions support that such practices are effective ways to learn. Building on such findings, Boix Mansilla suggests that understanding in history, or in any domain, entails being able to use representations in order to engage in culturally meaningful performances, including creating products, solving problems or building explanations. Such a performance based view of historical understanding illuminates the concepts of active and authentic learning and provides an alternative means of assessment more related to students' abilities to use what they know in novel contexts. Boix Mansilla suggests that this ultimately prepares students to be active contributors in their society.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON HISTORY TEACHING AND LEARNING FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- ensure that the outcomes take into account that students possess prior historical information and should build on the **sources** of historical information that students are familiar with, including the family, the community and the media
- ensure that the outcomes take into account that students' cultural backgrounds influence their construction of historical meaning
- ensure that the K–8 outcomes reflect the importance of social history as a starting point for instruction and reflect the necessary connection between social and political history
- consider that outcomes include the specific development of historical thinking, including such concepts as historical significance, agency, interpretation and evidence.

GEOGRAPHY

How does the literature on geography inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

Orientation

In the United States, since 1984, all of the major geography organizations have actively participated in the reform and revitalization of geography education (Petersen, Natoli and Boehm, 1994). This has resulted in the publication of documents such as the Joint Committee on Geographic Education's *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools* (1984) and the National Council for Geographic Education Standards Development Committee's *Geography for Life: National Geography Standards* (1994). The *Guidelines* articulate five fundamental themes of geography, location, place, relationships within and between places, and regions. *Geography for Life* lists and outlines 18 content standards. Boehm and Petersen (1994) state that the five fundamental themes are a useful content organizer and a powerful teaching tool, and Bettis (1996) states that nearly all geography education publications since the mid-1980s have used them as the basis on which to organize curriculum. Sitwell (1996) states that *Geography for Life: National Geography Standards* could easily be adapted to the Canadian situation, but that this would require the cooperation of provincial departments of education, faculties of education and university departments of geography. As an academic staff member in a university department of geography, Sitwell reports that he is "extremely impressed" with these geography standards and believes that they are comprehensive enough to constitute an excellent geography curriculum. Stoltman (1996), in a forward to an international collection of papers on geography education, states that the period after 1992 has seen dynamic change and introspection for geography as a discipline. Rawling (1996), reporting on geography education in England and Wales, states that geography education must take a active inquiry approach to teaching and learning. In a similar review from Germany, Niemz (1996) recommends an emphasis

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on field trips and projects to connect geography to life skills. de Montiel (1996) calls for a transformation in geography education in Argentina, one in which the student constructs and reconstructs reality and critiques and adopts knowledge that will be used throughout life.

There seems to be general agreement in the literature that geography can contribute to the citizenship goals in the social studies curriculum (Stoltman in Checkley, 1996; Deir, 1997; Hill and Natoli, 1996; Wright, 1997). These writers suggest that geography education has intrinsic value and value for both personal and social decision making. They and others (Rallis and Rallis, 1995; Smith, Nellis, Pressman and Palmer, 1994) share a deep concern that geography education must connect to the life contexts of students rather than be a disconnected collection of information with little or no relevance to their lives. Deir suggests that geographic skills and understandings promote multidisciplinary problem solving, and Wright also asserts that geographic knowledge needs to be integrated into the other social sciences. Wright argues for a holistic approach to geography education that combines the four traditions of geography—spatial, human/land relationships, area studies and earth science—to enable students to draw connections between the physical and human environments. He outlines four ways that geography instruction in the curriculum could be organized, including site specific studies, the study of problems and issues with significant geographic dimensions, and regional and global studies. Hill and Natoli (1996) promote issues-centred approaches to geography education, defining issues as "life situations". Osborne (1998) argues that paying attention to some of the exciting work in contemporary geography, such as in cultural geography, may enhance the instruction of geography at all levels. He suggests that teaching students skills of visual literacy—being able to read symbolical representations inherent in our physical surroundings—is a promising avenue

Bednarz (1997) suggests that the geographic perspective is not strongly represented in the social studies curriculum because most social studies teachers are trained in history. She argues, along with Rocca (1993), that a geographic perspective should be used to enrich historical study within the social studies by helping students to grasp the significance of location, the inevitability of change and the importance of human perceptions at given times in the past.

Research on Geography Education

Stoltman (1991), in a review of research on geography teaching, states that the role of geography in citizenship education has been almost entirely ignored in the research on geography teaching. He suggests that geography teaching has generally been a minor topic within social studies education research and that as a research topic, geography teaching has lost ground relative to all social studies research. Bettis (1996) states that the absence of empirical data continues to plague geography education and that a more fully developed research agenda

is necessary to inform curriculum and instruction. Weller (1996) echoes this concern and adds that research in elementary geographic education must pay attention to students' spontaneous geographic experiences, interests, thoughts and questions, recognizing that students learn outside of school as well as inside. She suggests that research agendas in geography education have paid more attention to the curriculum side, the structure and content of geography, rather than to what students already know and want to know about geography. Smith, Nellis, Pressman and Palmer (1994) found that when students were exposed to a geography-centred curriculum, there were significant differences in their positive opinions regarding matters that were deliberately presented to them. They argue that student attention must be deliberately focused in ways that helps students make connections among themselves, their studies, geography matters and the real world. Buggey and Kracht (1991) further emphasize the importance of the teacher in geography education, by stating that the teacher is the key. In their review of research on geographic learning, they state that while there is support for the inclusion of geographic education beginning in the early school years, there is not agreement about how and when it should take place. The one area of agreement in the research is that students can learn what well prepared teachers systematically teach. It seems that regardless of when geographic skills and concepts are introduced, presentation of the materials and preparation of the teacher seem to be crucial elements in developing geographic concepts and skills in students.

Buggey and Kracht (1991) point out that geographic concepts and skills, when taught by well prepared teachers with appropriate materials, can be learned at a younger age than may have been expected. Sowden et al. (1996), in a study of four-year-old children in York, England, asked them to interpret a black and white photograph and solve a simulated navigation problem on the photograph. By placing the problem in a story context with personal reference points, the children were able to identify landscape features and solve simple problems. Palmer et al. (1993) contend that geography can be taught at the primary level, using an interdisciplinary approach, where instruction is consistent with students' development and experiences. Wiegand and Stiell (1996), in a study of 11- and 12-year-old children's estimations of the sizes of the continents, report some misconceptions and recommend that maps and globes should be used together, not only in the primary years, but beyond, as a way of helping students see that different map projections emphasize some properties at the expense of others. Kirman and Unsworth (1992), in a study with Grade 6 students, concluded that these students were capable of making and using a digital map.

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Pedagogy

Wright (1997) contends that poor pedagogy is a major concern in geographic education. The recent literature contains a number of suggestions for improving the teaching and learning of geography. Chicola and English (1996) outline collaborative learning activities that enable parents to support and enhance geographic learning in the home and personal world of the child. The incorporation of children's literature appears frequently as a successful way to encourage geographic thinking, build geographic skills and develop lasting mental maps of places and regions (Harthern, 1992; Lombard and Capan, 1993; Flaim and Chiodo, 1994; Oden, 1995; Field, Labbo and Brook, 1996; Deir, 1997). Field trips and other active learning strategies, such as creating models and involvement in simulations, are recommended by Deir (1997) and Wright (1997). Kirman (1996) recommends games and the use of remote sensing images from satellites (1997/1998). Technology offers many teaching and learning alternatives for geography education (Checkley, 1996; March, 1998; Weller, 1996). Multiple resources and resource-based learning are suggested as important to promote thinking and active learning in geography (Deir, 1997; Yan, Torjman, Clipsham and Hamilton, 1998). Multiple intelligence theory has been applied to map learning (Gregg, 1997).

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON GEOGRAPHY TEACHING AND LEARNING FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- consider that outcomes include systematic treatment of geography in ways that connect geographic understandings to topics under study and to the real experiences of students
- consider how outcomes can reflect geography's contribution to citizenship goals.

OTHER SOCIAL SCIENCES

How does the literature on the other social sciences inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

Economics

Schug and Walstad (1991) state that because economic decisions are made on a daily basis and we think and talk about economic issues, a compelling case can be made for economic literacy. They, along with Armento (1991), report that there is some research that addresses the development of students' economic thought. This research suggests that students develop notions of economics from their experiences in the world, that some of these notions are misconceptions, and that their economic ideas tend to follow a developmental sequence. Armento argues that the social studies program in the elementary years should build on this informal learning as a basis for the formal development of critical thinking skills and for the construction of useful and powerful economic knowledge. Schug and Walstad report research that raises questions at the high school level about whether economics should be part of social studies or a separate course. They

suggest that infusion of economics into social studies may make a valuable contribution but how and under what circumstances needs to be researched further. Wentworth and Schug (1993) argue that economic education is an integral component of social studies and citizenship education. They maintain that teaching economic reasoning can enhance students' critical thinking and citizenship skills. Armento, Rushing and Cook (1996) advocate that instruction in economics must acknowledge and incorporate ideological differences and multiple interpretations on economic issues. They also assert that classroom instruction must be interdisciplinary because ideological perspectives on economic issues have social, historical and political dimensions. Armento, Rushing and Cook recommend an issues-oriented approach to economics instruction that blends effective pedagogy with content knowledge to produce an interpretive and interdisciplinary approach. In such a model, which they advocate for K–12, instruction would begin with student interest and prior knowledge and progress through inquiry and investigation to reconstruction and representation of new information and perspectives.

Anthropology, Sociology and Psychology

Nelson and Stahl (1991) state that these three social sciences are linked by their relatively minor roles in the greater scheme of social studies but that an expansive definition of citizenship would provide for their inclusion in the curriculum as abettors of good citizenship. They suggest that these social sciences provide conceptual foundations in relation to culture, group and self that promote pluralism, a basic tenet of democratic society. Their review of the research in these three areas in relation to social studies concluded that very little was revealed about the teaching and learning of anthropology, sociology and psychology. Jantz and Klawitter (1991) reached much the same conclusion in their review of elementary social studies research in relation to anthropology and sociology. Both research reviews cited above do mention several social studies curriculum projects from the 1960s and 1970s as providing evidence that anthropology and sociology can be part of social studies. Jantz and Klawitter argue for the importance of anthropology and sociology in elementary social studies and suggest an interdisciplinary approach. They report that there is some evidence that students can learn the major understandings from the two disciplines when they are systematically taught and that students' rankings of social studies with other areas tend to rise when anthropology and sociology are included in the social studies curriculum. Content from these two disciplines seems to make the curriculum exciting and motivating for students and appears to promote a more positive attitude toward social studies.

Ling (1997) advocates an approach that is concerned with the anthropology of everyday life, suggesting that this view of anthropology can illuminate aspects of history, geography, politics, economics, language, the arts and other disciplines. The focus is on how one way or another, we make culture in our daily lives. Ling argues that in this

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approach, cultural anthropology can be seen as an overview discipline with power to integrate various subjects or topics. He asserts that as we live in a multicultural world and travel and work in increasingly different cultural milieus, the anthropology of everyday life becomes important as a way to engage in conversations about what it means to be human.

Ligon and Chilcoat (1996) believe that an issues-centred study of central concepts in anthropology, sociology and psychology provides students with perspectives on the problems they face. They point out that culture is the first strand in the National Council for the Social Studies Standards for Social Studies (1994) and that as a discipline that can emphasize interdisciplinary integration, anthropology is well-suited to an issues-based approach. Ligon and Chilcoat suggest that changes within sociology are resulting in a number of sociologists promoting critical citizenship.

Archaeology is mentioned, although infrequently, as another social science that can contribute to social studies curriculum. Devine (1997) suggests that archaeology serves an important historical function by providing prehistoric information and by supplementing and validating historical records. She states that it can be a vehicle for achieving social studies objectives and argues for its integration into social studies curriculum.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON THE OTHER SOCIAL SCIENCES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- acknowledge that while the role of the other social sciences appears to be minor in the social studies curriculum, the inclusion of these disciplines has been found to increase student interest
- consider ways in which the other social sciences can be incorporated in interdisciplinary ways that link to students' real lives and experiences.

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PART 3: RESPONDING TO ESTABLISHED CURRICULAR INFLUENCES ON SOCIAL STUDIES

How does the literature on curricular influences inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

- Multiculturalism means different things in different settings (Grelle and Metzger, 1996).
- Multicultural education can include the study of people who are members of different ethnic, cultural, racial, gender, religious, regional and sexual orientation groups (Araboglou, 1996).
- Some approaches to multicultural education are seen to be controversial in nature. Issues of race, for example, are avoided in the classroom (Cornbleth, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 1996).
- The best way to provide multicultural education is to integrate multicultural content and experiences into the entire curriculum. However, caution is needed with a program that does little more than celebrate diversity and promote an unproblematic national tradition (Werner, 1993).
- The concept of culture has been simplified and reified to fit visions of personal, ethnic or national cultural identity that are fixed, essentialized, stereotyped and normalized. Students are most often encouraged to look at culture through lenses and categories that are familiar to them assuming that needs and wants are basically the same. These persistent appeals to universals do little to help learners move beyond their own cultural frames of reference in order to better understand themselves and others (Ellington, 1998; Epstein, 1993; Hoffman, 1996).
- Aboriginal studies tend to be presented from a solely European perspective. Students' experiences of aboriginals are often limited to stories about ancient lifestyles, museum trips or a visit from a local aboriginal community member. This approach does little to develop students' understanding or appreciation of aboriginal cultures (Harvey, 1996; Sweet, 1994).
- All students need to know and value cultural diversity in an individual, group, national and global context. Competence in cultural pluralism is a condition of effective democratic citizenship. Students should be taught the rights and responsibilities associated with citizenship in a community of diversity (Ooka Pang, Gay and Stanley, 1995).
- Attitudes toward culturally different others are formed at an early age. Elementary age students are more accepting of diversity than in later years (Fry, McKinney and Phillips, 1994; Kehoe, 1997).

- The primary goal of a pluralistic curriculum process is to present a truthful and meaningful rendition of human experience (Hilliard, 1992; Sobol, 1993).
- Another goal is the raising of cultural consciousness. Students and teachers are culturally encapsulated. They take their culture with its values, beliefs and stereotypes for granted. These restrict their freedom and ability to make critical choices and take actions to help reform society. Opportunities to identify, question and challenge their cultural assumptions, beliefs, values and perspectives in school are rare. Students need to become conscious of their culture and be able to step outside of themselves and look at the habitual norms, values and practices that make up that culture, in order to see that their way of doing things is not the only or the right way and to understand that others have their own ways (Adams, Pardo and Schniedewind, 1992; Banks, 1992; O'Neill, 1998).
- Fostering a self-critical conception of citizenship cultivates students' ability to examine ideas, events or values from a variety of perspectives; teaches the skills of reflective thinking to identify and remove cultural stereotypes; raises awareness of all cultural alternatives; and encourages thoughtful and honest examination of those alternatives. When there is cognitive understanding of cultural patterns, cultural stereotypes are removed (Anchan and Holychuk, 1996; Grelle and Metzger, 1996; Hepburn, 1993; Hoffman, 1996; Ooka Pang and Park, 1992).
- Problems of prejudice and inequality in the classroom and in society need to be confronted by advocating students' listening to each other and respecting the knowledge that each student brings to school (Bullard, 1992; McGregor, 1993; Ooka Pang and Park, 1992; Singer, 1994).
- It is important to have as diverse a curriculum as possible because all students need to be able to view things through multiple perspectives and to find a place in our pluralistic world (Ellington, 1998; O'Neill, 1998).
- Multicultural education is not something one does and it is finished. It is an ongoing process (Banks, 1992).

GENDER EQUITY EDUCATION

- Gender equity education is not just for girls; it is about enriching classrooms, widening opportunities and expanding choices for all students. Based on the principle of inclusiveness, this approach challenges social studies curriculum to represent all groups in terms of race, ethnicity, religion, gender, social class, sexual orientation and ability (Bloom and Ochoa, 1996).
- While social studies professes to represent and value social justice and diversity, it has failed to address injustice. This silent coercion

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has miseducated generations of students (Bernard-Powers, 1996b; Strong-Boag, 1996).

- The gendered nature of the curriculum is called into question because it ignores women's experiences as a form of worthwhile knowledge (Banks, 1995; Hunter, 1993; Matthews et al., 1998; Osborne, 1991).
- More emphasis needs to be placed on curricular materials that feature girls and women so that all students learn to appreciate and value the accomplishments of women and leave behind assumptions and stereotypes (Bailey, 1996; McCall, 1994).
- Girls are deprived of role models and the knowledge of their own culture that is needed to raise their self-esteem and help shape their identity (Dam and Rijkschroeff, 1996; Pollard, 1996; Rutledge, 1997).
- The portrayal of women in history textbooks is problematic, because textbooks foster negative images through sex stereotyping and relegate women to secondary roles by omission. Where females are included there is little effort made to recognize women's unique contributions to society. Depicting women solely as suffragettes and reformers, for example, leaves out their participation in national and international politics, the arts, the work force, peace movements and the military. Women's contributions are also most often viewed from a male perspective. Viewed through women's eyes, virtually all historical topics take on a different perspective (Bloom and Ochoa, 1996; Noddings, 1992a/1992b; Reese, 1994).
- By excluding information about women from the curriculum or presenting information as peripheral, we are teaching students that knowledge by and about males is better (Baldwin and Baldwin, 1992; Matthews et al., 1998; Reese, 1994; Strong-Boag, 1996; Walter and Young, 1997).
- Both male and female experiences across time, cultures, institutions and contexts must be included in order to adequately understand human history (Stone, 1996).
- All students need to be taught how to recognize bias and how to counteract it (Baldwin and Baldwin, 1992).
- The focus of education for citizenship has traditionally been on problems of democracy and political life. As part of gender equity education for citizenship, there is a need to expand the notion of citizenship to include what is now considered to be private life in order to provide women with a sense of their own history as well as providing men with a historical perspective on the relations between the sexes. Exploring social issues that shape the quality of life, such as concern about families, reproduction, housework, health, sexuality, marriage and divorce, the environment, needs of the elderly and needs of children, would be more inclusive of all

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citizens' experiences and help to shape female identity (Bernard-Powers, 1996a).

- Citizenship education must be broadened to include decent, caring, responsible behaviour in personal and family relationships with a view of citizenship that prepares students for being neighbours, mates, siblings, friends, parents and pet owners (Noddings, 1992b).

GLOBAL EDUCATION

- Citizens need to be made aware of growing global diversity and interdependence. They need to view the world as a planet-wide society, to understand the interdependence of humans and to learn global responsibility (Dhand, 1991; Reardon, 1994; Risinger, 1996).
- Future citizens will be required to understand and interact with people, cultures and ideas throughout the world (Peters, 1992).
- The purpose of global education is to provide students with the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to be effective global citizens who deal thoughtfully with rapid global changes, recognize the impact of those changes on their own lives, and who participate actively in making this world a more peaceful and just place for all (Soley, 1996).
- While there is no generally agreed upon definition of global education, it is agreed that citizenship needs to be defined more broadly to include not only the nation but the world (Tucker and Evans, 1996).
- Students of all ages are more aware of global issues today as a result of the media and advanced technological communications (McGowan, 1994).
- Simply providing students with information about the world does not develop a global perspective (McGowan, 1994; Tucker and Evans, 1996).
- Global education has two dimensions: the substantive or knowledge of the world and how it works; and the perceptual or the worldview, values and attitudes needed for global well-being, including empathy, hope, open-mindedness, full-mindedness and fair-mindedness (Case, 1993/1996; Werner and Case, 1996).
- Global education includes a global view of human affairs, with an emphasis on the shared interests and relationships embedded in the interconnectedness of all peoples of the world, as well as an awareness that one's view of the world is not necessarily shared universally (Pugh and Garcia, 1996; Starr and Nelson, 1993).
- Global education involves values analysis and a strong moral focus. Students must be given opportunities to examine their attitudes and values about how individuals should be treated and

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understood and to assess the adequacy of their reasoning (Werner, 1996).

- Education for a global perspective should provide opportunities for direct experience. Students need to connect with problems of a global nature in order to help evoke sensitivities to important global issues and to counter feelings of global hopelessness (Ashford, 1996; Buell, 1993).
- Students need to develop problem-solving skills for dealing with global issues (Angell and Avery, 1992; Walstad and Watts, 1993/94).
- Suggested teaching approaches include: classroom discussions, using cases, simulation/role play, problem solving, using documents and primary resources, student engagement in reflective dialogue, films, stories, field trips, guest speakers, exchanges, penpals, and social action projects (Case, 1996).
- Teachers' efforts to promote global education to date have been complicated by classroom environments, student expectations, crowded timetables, heavy teaching loads, professional isolation, teaching to standards, opposition of some groups, parents concern over subject matter, a lack of resources and a lack of training (Taylor, 1997; Tucker and Evans, 1996).
- Make increased use of technology to prepare youth to live in harmony with a national and global diversity (Adeymi, 1996).

PEACE EDUCATION

- Attention to peace education has increased as a result of response to the Cold War, the nuclear arms race, the violation of human rights and environmental damage (Ashford, 1996; Balin, 1993; Carson and Parsons, 1985).
- A long-term approach to developing peacemakers and conflict resolvers is necessary, as less than half of short-term violence prevention programs have claimed to reduce violence (Stomfray-Stitz and Hinitz, 1996).
- Peace education is best pursued through the incorporation of its goals into the provincial social studies curricula (Carson and Parsons, 1985; McGinnis, 1993).
- We need a program that integrates human rights education into social studies curriculum and blends cultural diversity with peace education and conflict resolution (Case and Ross, 1996).
- The broad goal of peace education is to increase knowledge of possible ways to help students deal constructively with the issues of peace and war (Bjerstedt, 1994).
- The essence of peace education is to involve students in expectations about possible changes in the direction of a cooperative and caring planet, to create attitudes through involving

students in caring and protecting activities, and to make it possible to turn some of the caring and protecting into habits (Norland, 1994).

- Dimensions of peace education include: nonviolence, human rights, social justice, world-mindedness, ecological balance, personal peace and meaningful participation (McGinnis, 1993).
- Involving students in trying to prevent conflict results in fewer feelings of anxiety and helplessness. Successful approaches include: training in empathy skills, anger management, conflict resolution, peer mediation, cooperative games, social skills and action-oriented projects (Ashford, 1996; Rohrs, 1994; Stomfray-Stitz and Hinitz, 1996).

VALUES AND MORAL EDUCATION

- There is a public perception of a decline in moral values and concern about increased violence in schools. A moral system of rules is needed for everyone or people will act on the basis of maximizing their own self-interest (Stevens and Allen, 1996).
- Values are the lenses through which events and knowledge are interpreted and transmitted (Soley, 1996).
- Civic education is not morally neutral; successful civic education involves moral education (Mabe, 1993).
- Students need to have values modelled for them (Cottom, 1996; Stevens and Allen, 1996).
- There is no way of teaching subjects without teaching values. Content should be examined in terms of what value messages it sends. Also examine what message the hidden curriculum sends, as moral principles and values are often taught indirectly (Berreth and Scherer, 1993).
- Social studies needs to explore the rule-bound world in which students live (Wright, 1993).
- A proper function of social studies is the provision of opportunities to develop an ethical framework from which decisions may be derived in order to adjust the balance between right and responsibilities (Berreth and Scherer, 1993; Stevens and Allen, 1996).
- The three cornerstones for teaching values are caring, citizenship and conscience (Braun, 1992).
- There are several approaches to values and moral education: 1) the values clarification approach, which helps students clarify whatever values they hold without the teacher saying what is right or wrong; 2) the moral dilemma discussion approach, which assists students in resolving issues of moral conflict so they can judge which values are better than others; and, 3) the values analysis approach, which requires that students think about their

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values and attitudes and assess the adequacy behind their reasoning by presenting opposing arguments and looking for inconsistencies in their attitudes (Case, 1996; Leming, 1996; Lickona, 1993; McKay, 1994).

- Moral reasoning is necessary but not sufficient for good character (Lickona, 1993).
- Schools should contribute to a child's knowing about what is good; however, in a multicultural, multiethnic nation it is difficult to come up with a shared vision of the good person (Ryan, 1993).

CHARACTER EDUCATION

- Character education is needed because a lack of good citizenship, increasing indifference to civic responsibilities, a lack of skills related to conflict resolution, a poor work ethic, a loss of respect, and irresponsible behaviour being exhibited by adults and young people are all threatening our social well-being (Battersby, 1996; Cohen, 1995; Lickona, 1993; NCSS, 1997).
- To promote socially responsible behaviour students need to be educated to think beyond self-interest to the broader public good (Lockwood, 1991).
- Character must be broadly conceived to encompass cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects of morality. Character education should emphasize social and personal skill development (Battersby, 1996; Massey, 1993).
- Good character consists of knowing the good, desiring the good and doing the good (Lickona,1993).
- Character education favours direct teaching of a set of core or universal values—respect for persons, justice, telling the truth—that are believed to focus on developing character. Procedures for inculcating values include modelling and role playing, habituation, repetition, reinforcement, and appeals to the heart (Brooks and Kann, 1993; Huffman, 1993; Leming, 1993; McKay, 1994; Stevens and Allen, 1996).
- Becoming indoctrinated to the importance of basic values is a necessary step prior to learning to think critically about ethical issues (Larkins, 1997).
- The use of children's literature, active role playing of positive behaviours, singing and poetry recitation appeal to the heart and counter the destructive messages students receive from the media (Cohen, 1995; Leming, 1993).
- Listing values and behaviours gives the misleading impression that the relationship between values and behaviour is simple and direct; however, acquiring these values does not guarantee the behaviour that character educators suggest (Lockwood, 1991; McKay, 1997).

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CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

- Controversial content is part of the content and pedagogy of the social studies. By definition public issues are controversial (Evans and Saxe, 1996; Levitt and Longstreet, 1993; Ochoa-Becker, 1996).
- Downplaying and ignoring controversial topics in the curriculum is unwise and contrary to the purpose of the social studies (McBee, 1995; Shaver, 1992).
- Young students confront controversial situations every day that are difficult for them to understand. The early years are important for addressing controversial issues because young students' self-concepts are being formed and they are open to diversity and have more tolerance for unfamiliar ideas (Risinger, 1992; Skeel, 1996).
- Addressing controversial issues can increase students' positive feelings toward social studies, improve their attitudes toward the rights of all to express their ideas, increase their interest in the political arena and promote the development of participatory political attitudes and behaviours. Students need active involvement in a wide variety of controversial issues to counter fixed and static ideas. There is a difference between a structured issues discussion and a session where students merely air their views (Gerzon, 1997; Hahn, 1996a/1996b; Turner, 1995; Werner, 1998).
- Teaching about issues that are controversial is a good way to learn about such values as peace, justice and dignity of the individual and to study value conflicts and peaceful resolution (Townley, 1995).
- Examining controversial issues provides opportunities for students to understand factors that influence how perspectives are developed and to think about their own perspectives and how the perspectives of others are different (Kirman, 1996; Soley, 1995).
- The purpose of issues-centred education is not just to raise the questions and expose students to them but to teach students to offer defensible and intellectually well-grounded answers to these questions (Evans and Saxe, 1996; Rhoades, 1994).
- There is a need to help students become responsible citizens who are informed about contemporary, controversial events. Such citizens must be able to create, appraise and analyze evidence and most importantly make decisions (O'Brien, 1995; Onosko, 1995; Turner, 1995).
- Four major approaches to teaching about controversial issues include: problem solving (the active search for knowledge to answer a question), public issues (both historical and contemporary persisting human dilemmas), decision making (making of reasoned choices) and moral reasoning (student reasoning about ethical dilemmas) (Rossi, 1995a/1995b).

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SERVICE LEARNING

- Community service projects are a means of reinvigorating social studies and making it more relevant, by making the vital school to life connection (Davis, 1996; Wade and Saxe, 1996).
- Service learning replaces students' self-preoccupation and narcissism with empathy and commitment to the community, the nation and the world (Pereira, 1997).
- Service learning can assist in developing positive student attitudes toward their community by helping them recognize their roles in the community, by increasing their self-confidence through providing a way for students to believe in themselves, by creating positive attitudes toward cooperation and responsible behaviour, and by positively enhancing students' future involvement in the social and political life of their communities (Barber, 1997; Boyte and Skelton, 1997; Davis, 1996; Lerner, 1996; Pereira, 1997; Philips, 1997; Wade and Saxe, 1996).
- Early community service experience is a strong predictor of volunteering for both teens and adults (Hess, 1997).
- Understanding democracy comes from doing democracy (Morse, 1993; Wade and Saxe, 1996).
- Identifying public issues is a crucial first step in the service learning process. Students need to explore their community, identify problems, examine public policy, explore their opinions and take action (Philips, 1997; Rappoport and Kletzein, 1997).
- Service learning projects should emphasize critical thinking, connect activities to appropriate stages of cognitive development and employ cooperative learning (Sausjord, 1997; Woehrle, 1993).
- Service learning should be used to build specific skills and content knowledge related to curriculum (Barber, 1997).
- Service learning can take a variety of shapes and forms. Two competing views are service as altruistic duty—learning about civic duty, volunteerism and the value of altruism—versus service as social action—including critical reflection about social policies and the acquisition of skills to exert influence in public affairs (Kahne and Westheimer, 1996; Wade and Saxe, 1996).

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON CURRICULAR INFLUENCES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- emphasize worldly-mindedness, teaching students to understand and interact with people, cultures and ideas throughout the world and to respect and protect the environment
- reflect the importance of perspective consciousness to help students to recognize and counter bias, assumptions and stereotypes and to promote understanding and appreciation of and caring and concern for others
- acknowledge both the importance of the cognitive and the affective development of students, by addressing the roles that values and morals play in the life of a citizen
- ensure that students are involved in meaningful, active participation on a local, provincial, national and international scale in order to hone the skills and attitudes essential to participatory democracy
- recognize the magnitude of teaching students to determine what needs to be known, to access and critically view a wide variety of relevant information, and to make informed, ethical decisions in order to become effective problem solvers
- ensure that all social studies content is carefully examined in terms of its representativeness of diverse viewpoints
- acknowledge the power of modelling by teachers, the resources used, and the overt and hidden curricula for shaping students' understandings.

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PART 4: RECONCEPTUALIZING VIEWS OF KNOWING AS INFLUENCES ON SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING AND LEARNING

CONSTRUCTIVIST THEORY

How does the literature on constructivist theory inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

Constructivism is a theory about the nature of knowledge (Brooks and Brooks, 1993; McKay, 1993; Scheurman, 1998a). Scheurman suggests that, in fact, constructivism is a set of related theories that have as their common denominator a belief that knowledge is created by people and influenced by their values and culture. Constructivist theories are not new and have a long tradition in disciplines such as philosophy and psychology. Jerome Bruner (1986) discusses the constructivist stance as a view that what exists is a product of what is thought, and suggests that such a view can be traced to Kant. Bruner draws on the work of a contemporary American philosopher, Nelson Goodman, to characterize constructivism by the human mind's capacity to represent through symbols, enabling us to create or construct meaning. Language, as one of our major symbol systems, is recognized as having a primary relationship to thinking and learning. Meaning is also created and expressed through other symbol systems such as art, music, drama and dance. Constructivist theory focuses on the individual as an active constructor of meaning rather than a passive recipient of knowledge. Learning is viewed as a complex process involving the interaction of past experience, personal intentions and new experience. Social context is recognized as a crucial element in the meaning-making process.

Scheurman (1998a), while acknowledging that there are different interpretations (Phillips, 1995) of constructivism, categorizes the field into two basic views: cognitive and social. The cognitive view, exemplified by Piaget, posits that people develop universal forms or structures of knowledge that enable them to experience reality. The social view, exemplified by Vygotsky, posits that knowledge is co-constructed through social and cultural contexts, rendering reality nonobjective (for a full discussion of these views see Bruner, 1986). Each version of constructivism has different implications for classroom practice, for definitions of knowledge and successful instruction, for the role of the teacher, and for the amount of emphasis on individual or social learning (Scheurman, 1998a). In cognitive constructivism, the teacher's role as facilitator is to pose problems that challenge students' conceptions of reality. Knowledge is viewed as individually constructed, based on the knower's intellectual development as s/he experiences reality during physical and social activity. In social constructivism, the teacher's role as collaborator is to participate with the students in constructing reality by engaging in open-ended inquiry

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that elicits and addresses student (mis)conceptions. Knowledge is viewed as socially constructed, as reality is created during physical and social activity.

Phillips (1995), while delineating a number of different versions of constructivism, states that their commonalities include an emphasis on the necessity of active participation by the learner and, in most of them, a recognition of the social nature of learning. In his opinion, in relation to their stance on education, most types of constructivism are modern forms of progressivism.

Constructivist Theory in Social Studies and Other Subject Areas

The educational philosopher John Dewey argued from a constructivist stance, emphasizing the necessary relationship between experience and education. Although not a theory of teaching, constructivism has strongly influenced recent paradigm shifts in assessment (Alleman and Brophy, 1998) and in language arts (Bruner, 1986), science (Yager, 1991) and mathematics (Schifter, 1996) curriculum and teaching. It is only very recently that constructivism is appearing in the social studies literature (see for example Scheurman and Yell, Eds., *Social Education*, 1998, 62(1), theme issue). McKay (1993), however, suggests that social studies is no stranger to the constructivist influence and cites the reflective inquiry conceptualization of social studies as stemming from a constructivist position. She states that the reflective inquiry conceptualization of social studies can be traced to Dewey's concept of a problem, which revolves around the notion that the problem must be construed by the learner as a problem. The learner is viewed as an active constructor of meaning, not as a passive recipient of knowledge. The reflective inquiry model of citizenship education is based on a constructivist stance where learning is seen as an active, individual, social meaning-making process. Knowing and the knower are intertwined. McKay speculates that the constructivist position is not as widely discussed and written about in social studies, compared with language arts, science and mathematics, because the reflective inquiry tradition has remained largely theoretical and has rarely been translated into social studies curriculum or practice in Canada or the United States.

Hope (1996) agrees that while other core subjects have moved toward student-centred, experiential, hands-on learning and constructivist learning strategies, social studies has remained subject-centred. He believes that a constructivist approach in social studies would allow students to engage with citizenship concepts from their own viewpoints. Scheurman (1998a) also suggests that much of social studies teaching and learning has been geared to the simple transmission of information and techniques for information processing. He suggests that the application of constructivist theory to social studies would result in the development of deep understandings of social studies problems and procedures and rigorously defensible beliefs about important issues in the disciplines. Through a

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developmental process, students would learn to view issues and problems from different angles and to identify multiple perspectives within and outside the field of study. Social studies knowledge would be constructed when students were able to form their own interpretations of evidence and submit them for review.

Constructivist Theory and the Teaching and Learning of Social Studies

As previously stated, constructivism is a theory about the nature of knowledge and not a teaching method or approach. As a theory, it does have important implications for teaching and learning in social studies. Scheurman (1998a) suggests that approaches to teaching that are directed toward open-ended inquiry and that encourage creative reflection on events, cultural experience and objects are compatible with constructivism. McKay (1993) argues that activities, methods and materials must be grounded in teacher understanding of constructivist beliefs about teaching and learning, otherwise the current focus on constructivism will be short-lived. She contends that our teaching and learning practices must have a theoretical framework or they become ends in themselves, rather than a means to an end. Brooks and Brooks (1993) provide five overarching principles of constructivist pedagogy: posing problems of emerging relevance to learners, structuring learning around primary concepts, seeking and valuing students' points of view, adapting curriculum to address student suppositions, and assessing student learning in the context of teaching. There are some examples in the literature of how such principles may be translated into social studies classroom practice (Allen, 1995; Boyer and Semrau, 1995; Noll, 1994; Scheurman, 1998b; Yell, 1998; Bower and Lobdell, 1998; Bower, Lobdell and Swenson, 1994). In one study of Grade 4 students' understanding of human rights, Wade (1994) concludes that consistent with constructivist theory, the development of student ideas were strongly influenced by prior knowledge, values, interests and motivation to learn. She suggests that conceptual change researchers agree that to promote cognitive engagement teachers must challenge student misconceptions, so that all students have opportunities to engage in discussions where they need to justify and explain their views and reconsider their ideas in light of new information. Allen (1995) reviews research on motivation to learn in secondary social studies and formulates a number of conclusions, including: teachers who motivate best are those who are engaged in their disciplines and with their students as learners; effective teachers, especially of culturally diverse student populations, attempt to link curricular content and students' knowledge, experiences and concerns.

While constructivist theory seems to hold promise for reform in social studies curriculum development and teaching and learning (McKay, 1993; Hope, 1996; Scheurman, 1998a), there are some things to consider (for a discussion of general cautions in the constructivist movement, see Airasian and Walsh, 1997). The whole language philosophy of teaching and learning in language arts, based on

constructivist premises, has engendered massive polarization in the field, centring around such areas as the teaching of skills (see for example Harris and Graham, 1996). Some interpretations of whole language have placed little emphasis on the direct teaching of skills. Confusion has been further exacerbated by unclear conceptions of constructivism as a teaching approach rather than as a theory of knowledge. Scheurman (1998a) identifies as a critical concern for social studies, the possibility of wholesale abandonment of traditional instruction and assessment while embracing constructivist principles. While this is unlikely, it is worthy of consideration at the outset of reform. Constructivism as a theory of knowledge does not negate the teaching of skills and content, nor does it regard personal meanings constructed as all equally valid. As Scheurman points out, there must be standards and criteria for what constitutes a reasonable student construction, and authoritative expertise exists in history and the social sciences. The transformations in the social sciences, discussed elsewhere in this review, reflect not only a call for multiple constructions, but also a call for skills that enable students to construct their own interpretations on the basis of evidence and to submit those interpretations for review, in other words to actively participate in the construction of disciplinary knowledge. Scheurman and Newmann (1998) discuss three criteria for authenticity in the constructivist classroom that they believe form a foundation for authentic intellectual achievement. These criteria and standards to promote authentic intellectual work include construction of knowledge, disciplined inquiry and value beyond school. They suggest that these criteria offer explicit standards for authenticity of intellectual work that have not been apparent in many attempts to apply constructivist theory to the classroom. Recognizing that constructivist theory applied to education can create pitfalls, Scheurman (1998a) asserts that in social studies, we must consider reform based on constructivist theory.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON CONSTRUCTIVIST THEORY FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- consider the place of constructivist theory as an overarching theoretical framework
- consider that constructivist theory has strongly influenced major reform in assessment and in core curriculum areas such as language arts, mathematics and science
- consider that there are different versions of constructivist theory and that each holds different implications for curriculum development
- consider that most versions of constructivist theory emphasize the active participation of the learner and the social nature of learning
- consider that elements of constructivist theory underpin many of the current transformations in the social science disciplines

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- consider how constructivist theory can accomplish citizenship goals.

BRAIN RESEARCH

How does the literature on brain research inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

Orientation

The current brain research is based on advances in the area of neuroscience, an interdisciplinary approach to understanding how the brain functions. Neuroscience uses technological advances, such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), electroencephalogram (EEG), and positron emission tomography (PET), as well as more traditional research methods, such as laboratory and clinical studies, to study the brain. During the 1990s, brain research has exploded, and Jensen (1998) states that while educators can apply only a small percentage of brain research, since much of it is esoteric or disease oriented, we must draw upon it because it suggests ideas and paths that have a higher probability of success in facilitating learning. Bruer (1997) quite bluntly states that we simply do not know enough about brain development and neural function to make direct links to instruction and educational practice. He suggests that we retain some skepticism while continuing to be interested in how basic research might contribute to and improve educational practice. Because advances in brain research are occurring so rapidly, information becomes outdated very quickly. Right-brain, left-brain theories and triune brain theories are now considered incomplete and inadequate explanations of how the brain functions. The orientation taken in this literature review is based upon current views of the brain as a complex, whole and interconnected system (Jensen, 1998; Caine and Caine, 1997a). Brain theorists suggest that we think of the brain as a biological and ecological entity and not as a computer-like machine (Sylwester, 1995). This view suggests that everything in the body, including the brain, is connected to and affected by everything else (Edelman, 1992). A view of curriculum as complex, interconnected and embedded in the experiences of the student is implied. McKay (1995) suggests that brain-based views of teaching and learning may support a social studies curriculum that is inquiry-based.

Findings

The brain learns fastest and easiest during the early school years. At this time, the child's brain uses twice as much glucose as an adult brain, as it explodes with neural connections (Chugani, 1991). Caine and Caine (1997a) caution that the young brain learns best from the way that it is engaged in social, emotional and sensory experiences and not only from the type of information that is packaged and presented to it. A low threat environment and complex experiences and interactions are essential types of experiences. Our experiences, in fact, have been found to affect the physical structure of the brain, a phenomenon known as plasticity. The brain grows new connections

with environmental stimulation (Diamond, 1988) and modifies itself structurally depending on the amount and type of usage (Healy, 1990). Enriched environments enable the brain to grow more neural connections, thickening the cortex of the brain, while less stimulating environments actually have a thinning effect on the cortex (Diamond and Hopson, 1998). Greenough, who has studied the effects of enriching environments for over 20 years, cites the critical ingredients in any purposeful program to enrich the learner's brain are first, that learning is challenging and second, that there must be some way to learn from the experience through interactive feedback (in Jensen, 1998, pp. 30–32). Challenge can be accomplished through varying materials and instructional strategies; e.g., rotating the use of computers, drama, music, art, group and individual work, field trips, guest speakers, games, and journals. Interactive feedback can be accomplished through such activities as group interaction, building classroom models and playing learning games, and through self-generated sources, such as checking against personal goals or posted criteria for performance, using a computer or checking with adults (Jensen, 1998). Enriched environments include reading and language, motor stimulation (Brink, 1995), a wide variety of approaches to thinking and problem solving (Gardner, 1993), a focus on the arts (Kearney, 1996), and stimulating surroundings.

Every brain is uniquely organized and Caine and Caine (1991) point out that although we all have the same set of systems, including senses and basic emotions, these are integrated differently in every brain. Because experience structurally changes the brain, the more we learn, the more unique our brains become. Neural pathways that help us to excel at thinking skills are very specific; and while a student may succeed at one type of thinking, s/he may have difficulty with another. The work of Gardner on multiple intelligences has been based on concepts related to the uniqueness of each brain (1983, 1993, 1995). Although enriched learning environments include both challenge and feedback, what these entail may be different for each individual learner. Student choice, in terms of the complexity, format and type of project; how to access information; and who to work with, is crucial in the learning process, since what is challenging for one student may not be challenging for another. Outcomes that are often reserved for inclusion in enrichment or gifted programs; e.g., problem solving, critical thinking, relevant projects, complex activities, choice and self-pacing, enrich the brains of all learners and are particularly important for students up to the age of approximately 10 years.

Emotions cannot be separated from learning and, in fact, may drive learning. Three major pieces of research suggest evidence of the primacy of emotions in learning. Research by LeDoux (1994) has shown that intense emotions of fear and pleasure take separate biological pathways in the brain and have priority over measured thinking, since life-or-death situations need immediate resources not reflection and contemplation. Other research has indicated that brain

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chemicals stimulated by emotions are dispersed to wide areas of the brain and the body, exerting a far greater influence on our behaviours than previously thought. Pert states that "when emotions are expressed ... all systems are united and made whole" (1997, p. 273). A third area of research has linked the findings about the biological pathways and the chemicals involved in emotions to learning and memory. Freeman (1995) suggests that emotions generate and drive the execution of our goals and plans. Goleman (1995) documents the link between emotions and long-term memory, suggesting that the chemicals activated by emotions help us recall things better. Jensen (1998) cites other research that indicates that when emotions are engaged immediately after a learning experience, recall and accuracy increase. Emotions drive attention, create meaning and have their own memory pathways (LeDoux, 1994). All values are emotional states, thus emotions help us make better value-based decisions (Jensen, 1998). Engaging emotions appropriately is intrinsic to learning. Music, games, drama and storytelling engage emotions as does celebration, controversy, ritual, introspection and teacher/adult demonstration of emotion (Jensen, 1998).

Brain research indicates that the process of making meaning is complex. Factors involved appear to include relevance, emotions, and context and pattern making. The brain innately seeks meaning through seeking relevance and patterns. The patterns give context to information that may otherwise be discarded as meaningless (Coward, 1990). Freeman (1995) says that it is the making of familiar connections (relevance) and the locating of conforming neural networks (pattern making) that are critical to the formation of meaning. Healy (1994) suggests that patterns are the key to intelligence and that in patterning, new information is organized and associated with previous mental hooks. Relevance can be created through linking with prior learning and experiences, and context and pattern making may result from the use of universal concepts and core organizing principles. Interdisciplinary and cross-disciplinary models of organization can also create relevance, context and connections. For younger students, learning that is hands-on, experiential and relevant enables patterns to develop (Jensen, 1998).

While the brain naturally searches for meaning, research has indicated that the brain cannot pay attention to new stimuli and successfully process for meaning at the same time. Hobson (1994) suggests that the association and consolidation process where the brain makes links to other associations, uses and procedures, can only occur during down time when the brain is not responding to external stimuli. Research by Schroth and others (1993) suggests that periods of purposeful processing time, "incubation for learning", may be ideal to facilitate meaningful learning. Personal processing time after new learning may involve activities, such as writing and small group discussions. Caine and Caine (1997b, pp. 182–184) discuss this consolidation and internalization of new information and procedures as

active processing of experience. They have developed guidelines for student performance outcomes for brain-based instruction (1997b, pp. 180–181).

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON BRAIN RESEARCH FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- recognize the powerful learning of which young students are capable, through K–4 outcomes that reflect active involvement and immersion in a wide variety of complex experiences and interactions that are meaningful, real-life engagements with social studies. The primary/elementary outcomes are foundational to the entire Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework
- provide for social studies outcomes that reflect enriched environments, including a wide variety in content, context, materials, groupings and strategies
- acknowledge and celebrate diversity through outcomes that allow for individual differences in the ways in which the brain creates and expresses learning. Both learning and teaching need to be multifaceted
- ensure that outcomes reflect the emotional basis of learning and decision making. Outcomes should reflect the interconnected nature of emotions, thinking and learning and that engagement of the emotions is a necessary condition for learning
- consider how outcomes can reflect the brain's search for both relevance and patterns. How to incorporate students' ideas, suggestions, needs and interests, as well as the possibilities of universal concepts, core organizing principles, and interdisciplinary and cross-disciplinary models needs to be explored.

LEARNING STYLES AND MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES

How does the literature on learning styles and multiple intelligences inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

While there have been numerous influential researchers in the area of learning styles (see for example Briggs and Myers, 1977; Dunn and Dunn, 1978; Gregorc, 1985; McCarthy, 1982), it is Howard Gardner (1983/1993/1995) who has pioneered the research on multiple intelligences. Based on current brain research, the work of Goleman on emotional intelligence (1995) is adding to that of Gardner. Silver, Strong and Perini (1997) and Armstrong (1994) describe learning styles theories as having to do with personality and processes of learning, while multiple intelligences (MI) theory is a cognitive model that seeks to describe how individuals use their intelligences to operate on the contents of the world; that is, to solve problems and fashion products. Gardner (1995) is emphatic that learning styles are different from multiple intelligences, and suggests that the relation between his

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concept of intelligence and various conceptions of style needs to be worked out style-by-style, since the different researchers mean different things when they use the term style. While Armstrong (1994) suggests that, broadly construed, a person's learning style is the intelligences put to work in learning contexts, he too, cautions against correlating MI theory and learning styles models. Other writers, such as Silver, Strong and Perini (1997), believe that learning styles and multiple intelligences can be integrated to form a fuller picture of intelligence and difference.

Learning style models tend to concern themselves with how people absorb and think about information and evaluate the results. Learning is generally seen to be the result of a personal, individualized act of thought and feeling. Most learning style theorists posit some version of four basic styles: concrete, sequential, practical; abstract, questioning, logical; images, feelings/emotions, original; and concrete, social, other-focused (Silver, Strong and Perini, 1997). Recent research and scholarly discussion of interest to the area of social studies, has centred around the connection between culture and learning styles (Guild, 1994; Dunn, 1997). Guild reports that while there is very little disagreement that a relationship does exist between a child's culture and preferred way of learning, this is not a simple or definite conclusion since there is no single work that claims to be comprehensive on the topic of culture and learning styles. She reviews a number of studies (1994) and points out that in both observational and data-based research on cultures a consistent finding is, that within a group, the variations among individuals are as great as their commonalities. In other words, a particular learning style should not be attributed to all individuals within a group. We must never assume that uniform practices will be effective for all individuals in a cultural group. Guild asserts that to meet diverse learning needs, diverse strategies must be intentionally applied to every student. Dunn (1997) concludes from her own research studies, as well as from a review of research of others, that there is no such thing as a cultural group learning style. Rather, there are cross-cultural and intracultural similarities and differences among all people. She further reports that in the United States, research documents that underachieving students, whether from other cultures or from the dominant culture, tend to learn differently from high achieving students. Where academic failure in schools with diverse populations has been reversed, instruction was changed to complement individual student learning style strengths. What seemed to determine whether students mastered the content was how the content was taught, not the content itself. Dunn's conclusions support those of Guild in relation to the importance of instruction that is responsive to how diverse students learn. Sternberg's (1997) research on intelligence suggests that when we match instruction to students' abilities achievement is improved, and that when we expand the range of abilities we test for, we also expand the range of students we identify as smart. He asserts that in a pluralistic society we cannot afford to have a monolithic conception of intelligence and schooling.

Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences challenges the standard view that human beings are born with a single fixed intelligence. Gardner (1997) defines intelligence as the human ability to solve problems or to make something that is valued in one or more cultures. He has identified seven intelligences (1983) and recently has suggested that there may be a least one more (1997). His theory of multiple intelligences challenges the entire concept of IQ, because traditional IQ tests only measure linguistic and logical-mathematical abilities, and perhaps spatial abilities, but neglect several other intelligences he has identified, such as bodily kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalist (1997). MI theory is grounded in current brain research (Gardner, 1997; Silver, Strong and Perini, 1997). Gardner suggests that linking the theory of multiple intelligences with a curriculum focused on understanding might be a powerful way for educators to use MI theory. He describes such a curriculum as one that enables students to take what they learn and apply it appropriately in new situations (1997). Because MI theory recognizes many ways of representing knowledge, students would have many accepted ways to represent what they have learned. Gardner (1995/1997/1998) makes it clear that MI theory is not an educational prescription and that there have been many superficial and ill-advised educational applications of MI theory. He reminds us that the theory has changed over the years and continues to do so. Klein (1997/1998) cautions that MI researchers have not found valid ways of assessing intelligences in the classroom or elsewhere, and Gardner himself (1998) states that one should never proceed directly from psychological or scientific theory to educational practice. Gardner (1998) offers two major educational implications he has drawn from MI theory, based on many years of thought and experimentation: we need to take differences among individuals very seriously, and the theory offers one initial way to begin thinking about individual differences in educational environments; and, important curricular ideas can and should be presented to students in many ways, including a variety of ways to introduce ideas, link them to more familiar instances and represent them as learning. When MI theory is exploited in the presentation of curriculum, Gardner (1998) states that more students would be reached and students would be exposed to expert knowledge, since the curriculum content would reflect multiple representations. Scheurman (1998) suggests that the concept of representations links MI theory with constructivist theory. He states that Gardner sees multiple intelligences as the tools a person uses to represent and ultimately understand the world. Scheurman reports that Gardner believes that understanding is, in turn, consistent with a constructivist view of knowledge.

Latham (1997) states that educators have embraced MI theory because it puts a name to what many teachers have known all along: that is, students have different capacities for learning in different areas. He suggests that there is no research to support that application of MI theory improves test scores but that this is perhaps a misguided purpose for using MI theory in education. He believes that MI theory

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holds great promise if the educational goal is to reach as many students as possible and to acknowledge, refine and celebrate individual talents. Armstong (1994) concurs, stating that the greatest contribution MI theory makes to education is to expand the techniques, tools and strategies used in classrooms beyond the predominant linguistic and logical ones that have been used almost exclusively.

The literature is beginning to reflect some applications of learning styles theories and MI theory in the social studies classroom. Emig (1997), Lambert (1997), and Hoover and Taylor (1998) all describe high school social studies classes where they have applied MI theory. These examples are characterized by high degrees of student choice and active participation.

Learning styles, multiple intelligences and brain-based views of education, while distinct fields of theoretical study, do share some similar outcomes in the classroom, according to Guild (1997). She proposes that while each has its own theoretical constructs, research bases and applications, there are six areas of overlap when application is made in the school classroom. The first of these is that each of the theories is learning- and learner-centred. Decisions about curriculum content and materials are weighed for their effect on learners. The second and third areas of overlap proposed by Guild are that the teacher is a decision maker and both the teacher and the student are reflective practitioners. This means that teachers must understand the theories and make appropriate applications of them for their own students. Teachers and students talk about their learning and work, actively planning and assessing it. Multiple intelligences, learning styles and brain-based theories all promote the education of the whole person and the personalization of education, by connecting the student's total life to the classroom learning. The fifth area of overlap that Guild cites is that the curriculum has substance, depth and quality, in that basic skills are treated seriously and are learned and applied in appropriate contexts. Learning outcomes are delineated, but standardization of curriculum and methodologies is avoided. The sixth and last area of overlap identified by Guild is that each of the theories promotes and celebrates diversity. It is a core principle that individuals are unique and that this has an effect on each student's ways of learning. In addition to suggesting these areas of overlap in classroom application, Guild offers the cautions that none of the theories are a panacea for educational dilemmas, and simplistic applications, cookbook approaches and standardized programs are to be avoided at all costs. That learning is a complex process must be acknowledged, and theories of learning styles, multiple intelligences and brain-based education provide a direct focus on the learner and the learning process.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON LEARNING STYLES AND MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- consider, in a general sense, the recent research on the theory of multiple intelligences and on learning styles theories. The various theories seem to support a recognition of the unique individual learning differences of students and the implication that curriculum must reflect and celebrate such diversity
- consider how outcomes can reflect individual learning diversity, beyond the linguistic and logical modes that have dominated curriculum.

CRITICAL THINKING

How does the literature on critical thinking inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

Wilen (1996) defines thinking, in the broadest sense, as the search for understanding. In a review of the research, Parker (1991) found that there is no consensus on definitions of thinking and that there is a large and confusing number of terms being used, including critical thinking, creative thinking, problem solving, decision making, divergent thinking, metacognition and higher-order thinking. For the purposes of this review, the term critical thinking will be used, since it seems most prevalent in the social studies literature. The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), a respected international organization, provides a recent interpretation of critical thinking in the document, "A Vision of Powerful Teaching and Learning in the Social Studies: Building Understanding and Civic Efficacy" (1993). Critical thinking skills are considered essential for achieving citizenship goals. The NCSS document includes four broad skill areas for critical thinking: acquiring, organizing, interpreting and communicating information; processing data to investigate questions, develop knowledge and draw conclusions; generating and assessing alternative approaches to problems, and making decisions that are both informed and justifiable; and, interacting with others in empathetic and responsible ways.

Parker's 1991 review of the research on achieving thinking and decision-making objectives in the social studies not only pointed out the confusing array of terms, but also concluded that these objectives were "more wish than practice". The current literature on critical thinking in social studies provides the same message; while valued on paper, it is not being addressed adequately, if at all, in social studies classrooms (Wright, 1995/1997; Sears and Parsons, 1997; Case and Wright, 1997; Leming, 1998). Case and Wright (1997) suggest that this finding appears to extend to Canadian schools, and Wright (1997) reports that many Canadian social studies curriculum guides and textbooks emphasize teaching thinking skills in a general way, rather than related to specific content. While Case and Wright (1997) state that teaching students to think has been a goal of social studies since its inception in 1916, Wilen (1996) suggests that since the 1980s there has been renewed interest in teaching critical thinking. He believes

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that this renewed interest coincides with the movement toward application of constructivist theory in teaching and learning. Critical thinking is necessary to accomplish in-depth study of subject matter, to make connections to what is already known and to apply learnings in new contexts—all tenets of constructivism.

Swartz and Perkins (1990) conclude that neither IQ nor developmental level of intellectual competence limits students in developing thinking skills. Gardner's work on multiple intelligences and Sternberg's research on culture and reasoning processes, both reported in the previous section, further challenge traditional views that may place limits on student abilities to think. In addition to views of student abilities as limited, other factors that have been identified as barriers to teaching critical thinking in classrooms include teacher isolation and lack of planning time, large numbers of students, broad superficial content coverage, and transmission views of teaching and learning that stress content acquisition (Leming, 1998).

A variety of approaches to teach critical thinking in social studies have been identified in the literature (Olsen, 1995; Wilen and Phillips, 1995; Wright, 1995/1996/1997; Sears and Parsons, 1997; Case and Wright, 1997; Leming, 1998). On the basis of his review of the research, Willis (1992) identifies the three most common approaches to teaching critical thinking in general as: creation of a classroom environment that fosters thinking, without direct teaching of thinking skills; infusion of thinking skills into regular classroom instruction; and, a separate course for teaching thinking. The classroom environment approach usually involves questioning techniques around issues and problems. The infusion approach, which Willis cites as the most popular method from his review, involves the teaching of thinking skills directly in the context of subject-matter content. The separate course approach involves the use of separate programs, that teach thinking skills outside of the context of regular classroom content.

While the literature favours the infusion approach of directly teaching critical thinking skills as part of subject-matter content, there are some further considerations (Wilen, 1996; Willis, 1992). A positive classroom environment is important in a general sense, but also as a prerequisite for encouraging students to speak openly, ask questions, raise issues and problems, and engage in active learning, all important aspects of critical thinking (Case and Wright, 1997; Leming, 1998). Teachers need to know how to use effective strategies that will facilitate critical thinking and need to model critical thinking in their own interactions with students. Questioning and discussion strategies are particularly important to actively involve students in critical thinking. Being able to monitor and evaluate one's own thinking, called metacognition, is also important. Critical thinking and content should be learned together, because they reinforce one another. Current research in the social sciences, related to the development of student understandings, particularly in history and geography, stresses the

necessity of teaching critical thinking skills that are particular to the discipline—see the section on history, geography and the other social sciences. The evaluation of claims and evidence is an integral part of critical thinking.

The literature on critical thinking strongly urges that in order to promote genuine thinking, the curriculum content must be reduced to allow for in-depth study (Willis, 1992; Newmann, 1991; Olsen, 1995; Wilen, 1996). Olsen (1995) points out that while new curriculum standards produced by the National Council for the Social Studies (1994) and various disciplines, such as history and geography, emphasize thinking, they present such extensive content that it is impossible to include it all and ensure the time needed for critical thinking to occur. Willis (1992) reports that experts in critical thinking also recommend that the curriculum should encourage problem solving, inventing and making connections, as well as have thinking processes and skills as curricular goals.

A number of scholars offer alternative visions for critical thinking in social studies. Leming (1998) argues that a K–12 social studies curriculum that is focused on the investigation of complex public policy issues to promote critical thinking is inappropriate. He suggests that while public policy issues should continue to be the focus of the curriculum, what is expected of students, in relation to critically thinking about such issues, needs to be rethought. Leming believes it is unrealistic to expect adult thoughtfulness on such complex issues but that interest and enjoyment in social studies can be fostered through learning about them. He recommends developing a rich knowledge base and classroom environments that facilitate the development of reflective judgement. Sears and Parsons (1997) suggest that an ethic of critical thinking is what must be nurtured in educators to remedy the gap between the ideals of teaching critical thinking and the actual classroom practice. They believe that teachers must make a personal commitment to some fundamental principles, such as knowledge is not fixed, all questions can be asked, multiple perspectives are accepted, ambiguity is a given and text needs to be viewed with skepticism. They suggest that teachers must embody such principles in their teaching, if they expect to prepare thoughtful citizens. Case and Wright (1997) recommend that teachers need to directly and systematically teach, in context, a range of intellectual tools, such as background knowledge, criteria for judgement, critical thinking vocabulary, and thinking strategies and habits of mind. Infusing critical challenges, tasks or questions that enable critical thinking, and encouraging a classroom community where critical thinking is a way of life are also suggested as crucial to a reformed pedagogy of critical thinking. Central to Case and Wright's views is a conceptualization of critical thinking as a quality, not an activity. They argue that attitudes are a crucial element in critical thinking and that a skills view divorces this important dimension from critical thinking.

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IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON CRITICAL THINKING FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- give careful consideration to the approach used for the inclusion of critical thinking. While the literature generally favours the infusion approach—linking thinking and content—it also suggests that social studies classroom practice has been inadequate
- confront the issue of breadth versus depth of coverage. The literature generally seems to support more in-depth coverage as necessary for promoting critical thinking
- consider the relationships among constructivism, brain research, theories of learning styles and multiple intelligences, and critical thinking. It would appear that the place of critical thinking in the curriculum framework needs to be looked at in light of the other research
- consider the relationship between critical thinking and the social science disciplines. The literature seems to support a better balance between teaching for understanding and teaching for content acquisition.

COMPUTER TECHNOLOGIES

How does research on the use of computer technologies inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

Best Uses of Computer Technologies

The key to preparing students to function in a technology driven society is to facilitate their ability to master sophisticated, globally-generated knowledge (Dede, 1998). Over a decade of research indicates that computer technologies in schools can play a supporting role in the achievement of this general goal and more specific social studies learning objectives; however, the uses of these technologies must be embedded in significant learning experiences (Braun and Kraft, 1995). Studies have found that the most frequent instructional uses of computers have traditionally been for word processing, game playing, and performing drill and practice exercises (King, 1994/95; Woodrow, 1991). Results show, however, that using computers to "automate" instruction through games, simulations and low-level educational software has little to no significant difference on learning, except in some cases with younger students and students with learning disabilities (Johnson, 1996; Robertson, 1998).

Teachers are encouraged to look beyond this limited view of technological use in teaching to approaches that can maximize the benefits for students and for themselves (Muir, 1994). More effective use of computer resources in schools occurs when the technology is used by students as an information processing and productivity tool to achieve a task (Dwyer, Ringstaff and Sandholtz, 1991). When tools such as databases, spreadsheets, multimedia, email and network search engines are used to complete "authentic projects" requiring students to use information to solve problems, there is greater

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potential to promote cognitive development (Jonassen, 1996). These tools have the power to stimulate the development of intellectual skills such as inquiry, reasoning, problem-solving and decision-making abilities; critical and creative thinking; and learning how to learn (Reginald Gregoire inc., Bracewell and Laferriere, 1996; Rose and Ferlund, 1997; Wiburg, 1991). Computer databases, for example, can be effective for stimulating higher level thinking, visualizing complex historical relationships, developing critical awareness of current events, integrating information from a variety of library sources, developing an awareness of the personal reality of history and learning facts as well as concepts, while being fun, interesting and challenging (Ehman, Glenn, Johnson and White, 1992).

As well, the use of computers has the potential to be a catalyst for change in the learning environment, especially through the broadening of traditional student–teacher relationships (Held, Newsom and Peiffer, 1991). Educational technology is ideally suited for reinforcing constructivism theories in learning, by allowing students to actively create through a diversity of media to achieve constructivist goals (Boyer and Semrou, 1995). However, to be effective in their use of technology, teachers need to shift their views of learning from "knowledge instruction" to "knowledge construction" (Dwyer et al., 1991). The teacher need no longer be the dispenser of information, but rather can become a facilitator of students' explorations (Budin, 1991). "If we want students to grow up to be autonomous and creative thinkers and citizens, their teachers need to model autonomy and creativity in their use of curriculum and technology" (Budin, 1991, p. 21).

Computers as Research Tools

Computers are effective tools for facilitating social studies research. They can provide quicker and easier access to more extensive and current information for students (Boldt, Gustafson and Johnson, 1995; Peck and Dorricott, 1994). Through the use of computers, students can learn to manage information rather than to memorize it (Wiburg, 1991). They are generally more engaging and interesting to use than textbooks, even though, in most cases, students still learn the same information found in textbooks (Mitchell-Powell, 1995). Information on the computer is presented in a variety of forms—graphs, pictures, text—and through a variety of modalities—auditory, visual—which makes it appealing to different learning styles (Wiburg, 1991). Individuals are enabled to further develop their own unique strengths by being able to access information through their preferred modality and through opportunities to represent their learning in a variety of ways (Wade, 1995). Determining more of the direction for their learning creates feelings of independence and empowerment, promotes creativity, and increases students' active involvement in their learning, thereby making their learning more personally relevant (Peck and Dorricott, 1994). Students are also more motivated to explore ideas further using the computer (Morden, 1994).

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Since the computer is seen as a real-life tool applicable to future employment, its use lends authenticity to the students' work and promotes attitudes important to lifelong learning (Means and Olson, 1994). The use of computers can also enhance what students are able to produce. One eight-year study of K to 12 classrooms (Dwyer, 1994) found a 10% to 15% improvement in achievement scores among regular computer users, as well as 30% gains in student productivity. The use of the word processing capacity of computers eliminates some of the frustrations of writing and enables some students to better express their ideas in writing (Edinger, 1994). Consequently, students write more, more effectively and with more fluidity (Dwyer, 1994). The more professional quality of the things produced adds to this sense of greater productivity (Means and Olson, 1994). Students' polished-looking, computer-generated products provide immediate gratification and build confidence in writing abilities (Held et al., 1991). However, while students are encouraged to write because of the facility the computer affords, the polished-looking results can create a "psychological" resistance to make changes, resulting in a hesitancy to complete all stages of effective writing. As well, the limited view of a document on a computer screen can make it difficult for students to learn to follow a complex series of events and thoughts and to check the flow of the argument (Nugent, 1993).

Questions abound about the kinds of information being accessed with the assistance of computer technologies, how that information is presented, what is being done with it and when it becomes too much. The abundance of things to access on the computer, especially via the Internet, can result in students easily getting sidetracked and spending a great deal of time off task (Gibson and Hart, 1996). Without instruction and practice in how to critically examine and make informed choices about the material accessed, information gathering can become a mindless exercise in which quantity overrides quality (Ragsdale, 1991). This sort of information-gathering exercise does little to promote historical thinking and understanding, including being able to distinguish between knowing "that" something happened versus knowing "how" to make sense of the event (Yeager and Morris, 1995). While computers may be good at conveying facts, they cannot convey the context and the interpretation that should be given to the study of history (Ragsdale, 1991). This is where the teachers timely historical anecdotes become important to helping students develop their historical understanding (Nugent, 1993).

Important research skills still need to be carefully taught and monitored to ensure that students are developing proficiency in the use of such critical skills. "Productive" software, which encourages students to organize and analyze the information collected, can assist with the development of these skills (Yeager and Morris, 1995). As well, because there is an inclination to accept the computer as an authority and view the information accessed as the "truth," students need to be taught to recognize that the information on a computer represents a

particular viewpoint (Ragsdale, 1991). They need to be encouraged to conscientiously use critical thinking skills to make both appropriate and ethical choices when using computer-generated information, just as they would for making judgements about other resource materials being used in the classroom (Risinger, 1998). Students need to be taught and know how to apply the skills of drawing conclusions from data, seeing several points of view, distinguishing fact from opinion and finding meaning in information, as they interact with computer technology (Lengel, 1987).

Computers and Collaborative Learning

Collaboration among learners both within and beyond the classroom walls can be enhanced through the use of computers when students work cooperatively on tasks (Dwyer, 1994). Within the classroom, however, students need to be taught how to apply cooperative learning strategies to their work with the technology (Held et al., 1991). If not, student power relations can result in increased intensity of student disagreement, conflict and competitiveness over who controls the computer, with more reticent students—most often female—being pushed aside (Acker and Oatley, 1993; Fisher, Wilmore and Howell, 1994). Students are fascinated by the possibilities of electronic communication for contacting other students and adults in different parts of the world to exchange ideas about topics of mutual interest (Boldt et al., 1995). Information gathered in this fashion is viewed by students as being more connected to "real" local, national and global issues (Wilson and Marsh, 1995). There is great potential for computer technologies to contribute to the development of effective citizens through these on-line learning communities (Fontana, 1997) and for students to gain first-hand knowledge of other cultures (Peck and Dorricott, 1994). Such increased exposure to first-hand information could potentially overcome students' insular views of the world (Morden, 1994). Still, these computer-generated "conversations" can be limited by both language and cultural barriers (Mitchell-Powell, 1995) and cannot guarantee a generation of students who are world-wise (Menchions, 1997). Additionally, this emerging means of social interaction raises a number of issues and challenges for character development as it can allow an individual to be an entirely different person than s/he is in reality (Seel, 1997). There currently is insufficient understanding of the impact of computers on these and other aspects of civic education (Diem, 1997).

Computers and the Curriculum

Another consideration is how well computer programs represent the curriculum. At times, the curriculum provided through computer programs is defined in a limited way as "content coverage" (Held et al., 1991). Some computer programs cover only a very narrow slice of a subject domain and are a poor match with curriculum guidelines (Means and Olson, 1994). Much of the content of these programs tends to be extra to the curriculum (Fisher et al., 1994). As well, instructional outcomes are strongly influenced by the goals and tasks

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in the computer program, both those that are included and those that are not (Nugent, 1993). Consequently, teachers need to think through their own curriculum first and then find ways to integrate technology with it so that the technology meets their curricular needs (Budin, 1991).

Finally, computer technologies need to be viewed as both content and tools. Decisions need to be made about what information about technology in society should be included in the social studies curriculum (Gooler, 1995). There needs to be a shift in curricular emphasis from how to use and apply the tools to understanding how the computer has and is changing the basic fabric of our educational and social systems (Diem, 1995). In order to become more technologically literate, students need to be encouraged to think about the technologies they are using and the relevance and appropriateness of their use (Postman, 1992). They need to be given opportunities to explore and discuss what happens as society creates and implements technologies, particularly relating to moral, ethical and equity issues arising from developments in human communication, the redefining of community, the effects on cultural unity and diversity, and changes in the ways we gather and analyze information (Gooler, 1995). Addressing these issues in the future will require an informed citizenry who can carefully consider consequences and make difficult choices relating to the use of technologies (Lento, O'Neill and Gomez, 1998).

IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESEARCH ON THE USE OF COMPUTER TECHNOLOGIES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- address the potential for rethinking the traditional approaches to computer use in the teaching of social studies
- consider the importance of looking for ways to incorporate the use of computers as productivity tools to enhance the development of critical and creative thinking skills
- address the possibilities available for developing research and inquiry skills, including accessing, processing and presenting information
- address the need to teach critical information viewing skills
- consider the ability to support collaborative learning and enrich students' interactions both in the classroom and globally
- provide opportunities to produce informed citizens and able decision makers, by accessing multiple perspectives and current local, national and international information on important issues
- examine the impact of computer technologies on society as part of the social studies curriculum.

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PART 5: RECONSIDERING STUDENTS' WAYS OF KNOWING AS INFLUENCES ON SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNING

How does the literature on students' ways of knowing inform the development of the Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework?

ACTIVE LEARNING

- The literature generally maintains that cooperative learning, student research activities, integration of literature, writing and the arts, and the use of educational technology should be an integral part of curriculum design in K–12 social studies (Clifford, 1993; Hutchens, 1993; Wasserman, 1992; Brill, 1996; Harmin, 1994).
- Active learning can be achieved through the use of cooperative learning, attention to learning styles and hands-on strategies (Alleman and Brophy, 1994; Gill, 1993).
- Interested and motivated students take more responsibility for their learning (Kim, 1996; Tassinari, 1996).
- Innovative presentations, alternative class structures and interactive learning can heighten student engagement (Byrnes, 1997).
- Meaningful learning takes place when students are involved in real-life experiences in the classroom and out of the classroom (Alleman and Brophy, 1993; Craig, 1993; Hicks and Austin, 1994).
- Experiential and higher-order thinking activities from elementary school social studies were remembered most favourably by college students (Alleman and Brophy, 1993).
- Diverse activities and active student involvement are related to positive student attitudes in both China and the United States (Fouts et al., 1993).
- Students learn best and remember more when they are involved in active learning (Mathews, 1993).
- Students need to actively participate as citizens in classrooms and schools to develop lifelong citizenship skills and attitudes (Morse, 1993).

CLASSROOM AS COMMUNITY

- Choice and opportunities for engagement in citizenship should be part of the classroom environment (Kennedy, 1994; McKay, 1993; Pezone and Singer, 1997).
- Classrooms must promote and practise democratic ideals (Banks and Banks, 1993; Hahn, 1996; Jennings, 1994; McDermott, 1994; Wade, 1995).

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- The classroom environment can promote pro-social attitudes (Case, 1996).
- Traditional classroom management and rule making are in direct conflict with the goals and objectives of citizenship education; a collaborative rule-making effort between teacher and class is an alternative (Miller, 1997; Schimmel, 1997).
- Engagement with literature and development of a classroom creed can actively engage students in more social and communitarian aspects of democratic citizenship (Orr and McKay, 1997).
- Students need to be involved in public life if they are to be committed to citizenship; concepts of community and social justice are important to them (Couture, 1997).
- Elementary social studies can be the core of the curriculum and be used as a vehicle for the promotion of caring, inclusion and social learning (McLean and Mayer, 1996; Rust, 1994).
- An emotionally safe classroom is necessary for addressing controversial issues, even in the earliest of grades (Houser, 1996).
- Research on the relationships between the climate in social studies classes and various desired civic outcomes suggests that teachers may have a substantial impact on the socialization of their students; classrooms where there is public talk and collective deliberation over shared problems and prospects in the public sphere are recommended for helping students to accomplish civics outcomes (Harwood, 1992).

INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACHES

- Integrated, thematic curriculum answers the call for an end to the traditional fragmented approach to content delivery and is supported by the brain-based work of Caine and Caine; the Core Commonalities set forth by Boyer are one way to integrate the disciplines at a high level (Bafumo, 1998).
- Curriculum integration is more prevalent in the early grades and middle schools (Willis, 1994).
- The widespread interest in and appeal of interdisciplinary curriculum is related to brain research on contextual learning, state and provincial mandates that promote interdisciplinary efforts, the middle school movement with its emphasis on team teaching, and the whole language movement at the elementary level that cuts across all disciplines (Bafumo, 1998; Jones, 1993; McGuire, 1996; Willis, 1994).
- Cross-disciplinary projects can fulfill content objectives and encourage critical thinking (Avery et al., 1994; Ferguson and Young, 1996; Gibson and Tranter, 1998; Lockledge, 1993; White, 1995).

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- Interdisciplinary curriculum is motivating to students (Carlson and Messier, 1997; Ferguson and Young, 1996; Gibson and Tranter, 1998; White, 1995).
- Attitudes, literacy and academic performance, and teaching strategies are all positively affected by curriculum integration in secondary social studies (Diem, 1996).
- Integration of language arts and social studies is particularly powerful (Button and Welton, 1997; Ferguson and Young, 1996; Jones, 1993; McGuire and Noe, 1993).
- Curriculum integration is often ineffective because educators only have vague understandings of the nature and rationales for integration (Case, 1997).

INCORPORATING THE ARTS

- The arts are essential symbol systems in which to create and express meaning; they have been underutilized as valid ways of constructing and representing knowledge in the school curriculum (Eisner, 1991/1992; Mann, 1998; McKay, 1997).
- Combining various symbol systems through the use of language, drama, art, movement and music enhances understanding (McKay, 1997; Nolan, 1995; Rudaitis, 1995).
- The arts provide opportunities for active involvement (Scrofani, 1990).
- The arts can increase literacy and create historical empathy (Fisher, 1996).
- The arts can increase cultural literacy (Chapel, 1992).
- The arts heighten student interest in social studies (Corbin, 1988; Philbin and Myers, 1991; Sabato, 1992; Turner and Hendricks, 1989).
- The arts enhance presentation of content and provide multiple paths to learning (Groth and Albert, 1997; Pazienza and Clarke, 1997).
- The arts enhance critical thinking (Epstein, 1994; Philbin and Myers, 1991).
- Meaning and relevance in social studies are enhanced by the arts (Bolenbaugh, 1989; Verriour and Tarlington, 1984).
- Controversial topics and issues can be dealt with through the arts (Hall, 1988).
- Research on intelligence, brain function, technology and learning, learning styles, critical thinking, the arts and education, and child development all support the use of the arts in social studies as powerful paths to understanding (Selwyn, 1993).

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- Emotional learning is enhanced by the arts (Epstein, 1994; Selwyn, 1993).
- Drama in the social studies classroom is more educational than theatrical, as it provides a forum to experience problems, situations and challenges in a safe environment (Chilcoat, 1996).

STORY AND NARRATIVE

- Because the content of social studies involves events, values, places, intentions, individuals and groups—all the material of stories—story format is a particularly appropriate way to teach and learn (Egan, 1997).
- Students find story meaningful and engaging (Egan, 1997).
- Through story, social studies concepts can be taught (Bohlen and Corbin, 1993; Brandt and Wade, 1995; Clarke and Smyth, 1993; Egan, 1997; McKay, 1997).
- Literature provides personal perspectives for examining essential social studies concepts and generalizations (Kim and Garcia, 1996; McKay, 1997).
- Literature can evoke an aesthetic response in students, which is crucial for developing understanding (McKay, 1997).
- Literature can develop critical thinking in social studies (Bean et al., 1996).
- Literature can generate discussion, provide multiple perspectives and contribute to a more personalized approach to social studies (Van Middendorp and Lee, 1994).
- Literature should not replace the textbook (McKay, 1997).

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LITERATURE ON STUDENTS' WAYS OF KNOWING FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SOCIAL STUDIES K–12 COMMON CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK

The Social Studies K–12 Common Curriculum Framework should:

- consider how the arts, including literature and story, can be represented in the curriculum as equally valid ways of creating and expressing meaning; alternative ways to represent are supported by brain research, multiple intelligence theory and constructivist theory
- consider how aspects of active learning can be reflected in curricular goals
- consider that the accomplishment of citizenship goals requires classroom and school environments that actively and authentically involve students as citizens. Classrooms and schools must be democratic
- consider interdisciplinary approaches as one way to accomplish contextualized learning for students; language arts and the fine arts are supported in the literature as powerful interdisciplinary combinations with social studies.

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